

# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume VI.  
Number 10.

PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER, 1915.

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## How the Working Museum of History Works<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD CARLTON PAGE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, DE KALB, ILL.

In this paper we shall not attempt to argue the value of the use of actual historical objects in the teaching of history, though unfortunately there seem to be some to whom such argument might be profitably addressed. Neither will we narrate how a serviceable collection of such objects may be gathered by almost any school with very slight expenditure of money. Our own museum is not quite three years old, yet we have assembled about two thousand separate items besides a special collection of two thousand Indian relics donated by one of our citizens. Not counting the cabinet cases, the total expenditure has been not to exceed ten dollars, chiefly for crating and express. But we do not care now to speak at length of these things. Our object rather is to show by the story of the concrete workings of a particular institution how a museum of history may be kept constantly in active service.

In these days of making things concrete and of visualizing, it would seem natural that museums of history at work would be very common, at least in normal schools. Yet only a cursory investigation reveals, first, the fact that very few such schools have enough historical objects to be dignified by the term "collection," and, secondly, the more striking fact that few make any real use of what they do have. A friend of ours has the museum idea pretty well developed and assembled a fair-sized collection in the normal school where he had charge of the department of history. Called to another institution, he left the museum as a legacy to his successor. After a time, he met the latter at a teachers' meeting, and, of course, inquired about the progress of the museum and especially as to its use. He was unconcernedly informed that the museum had not been of much use, for they had lost the keys two years before and had not been able to get into the cabinets! We are compelled to believe that this incident is not an isolated one, but rather that it is typical of the mental attitude of a large proportion of teachers of history. So a somewhat detailed consideration of the ways a museum may be used will probably not be a work of supererogation.

First then, of greatest importance, is the taking of the objects into the classroom. In our own museum, everything goes except a few articles too large or too heavy to move, and a very few too fragile to handle. To be sure, there is danger that some things may be

injured or lost or stolen, though an experience of three years has demonstrated this danger to be almost negligible. But were it greater, we believe it is better to lose some things while in use rather than preserve them by "cold storage."

Of course, the taking of articles into the school-room and wonderingly staring at them as curiosities is of little value. Historical objects have educative value, insofar as they reveal to some degree the life of other times or other climes. The teacher must see this, and must help the pupil to see it, or the presence of the object is of little avail. In our classes in the Normal School, we constantly, by precept and by example, preach the gospel of the museum of history. When our students become student-teachers in the Training School, they are expected to make large use of the museum, and they do. We give our personal attention to delivery of material to the applicants for it. No article is allowed to go out unless the student-teacher understands the significance thereof. The supervising critic-teachers watch to see that correct interpretative use is made of the material.

The method of comparison is one of the most effective for bringing out the significance of articles. One way of comparison is to contrast the manner of different peoples in doing a certain thing. Thus, one class made use of our resources in the way of foot apparel. Eighteen or twenty kinds of foot-wear from nine different countries and three continents excited the intensest of intelligent interest. Here was the basis for many little themes, for drawings, for oral reports, and for investigations of other customs of these same people.

Another method of comparison is to contrast one age with another in its method of solving its problems. This is most helpful because it shows the evolution of phases of life. For example, we have procured about twenty-five different articles showing the evolution of the process of getting fire and making a light. When children have whirled the primitive fire-stick until it begins to smoke, when they have struck a spark with flint and steel, when they have actually made candles by dipping and by molding them in molds one hundred fifty years old, when they have contrasted a replica of the original incandescent lamp with the latest tungsten pattern—when they have done these things and others, they have not simply been learning how men came up from primitive limitations towards rational freedom, but they have actually experienced the process. The enthu-

<sup>1</sup> Read before the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, at New Orleans, April 24, 1915.



siasm which illumines the countenances of children living such experiences affords compensation to the schoolmaster for many weary hours of drudgery.

Pupils appreciate most those things they are allowed to handle and use. Accordingly we encourage this in all cases possible. A little procession around the schoolroom with "wide-awake" caps and capes, torches, flambeaus and a Civil War fife will do more to make the old-fashioned campaign a reality than all the books in the library. A few days ago we quizzed a sixth-grade class about the early life of Franklin, and one of them made the remark that Franklin's father was a tallow candler. We asked what that was, and were told he made candles. We asked if they knew how candles were made, and they answered, "Yes," with enthusiasm. When asked how they knew, they fairly shrieked, "We've made 'em." The fact that the molds were as old as Franklin's time did not detract from their interest. For them, at least one phase of the past was a living reality.

After using things from the museum, pupils occasionally write us letters telling what they have learned from the material. These letters are highly instructive as to the workings of the child mind, and are a serviceable guide as to how to utilize objects to the greatest advantage.

Some idea of the extent to which articles are taken from the museum may be obtained when we state that two hundred twenty-five separate items were taken out in fourteen weeks of the fall term. Two hundred thirty-six were taken out in eleven weeks of last term. Things are in brisker demand this term. Last week thirty-four items were taken out in one day. Twenty-seven of the items were material illustrating the financing of the Civil War—Confederate currency (State and national), a Confederate bond, a United States bond in facsimile, an income tax receipt, and a promissory note, a will, a bank check, a photograph, all bearing war revenue stamps, etc. Other articles of the day were various Indian relics. The day before, United States and British flags and a colonial horn-book (in reproduction) were in demand. About the same time photographs of colonial exteriors and interiors were called for. These demands may be considered typical of the variety from day to day.

Next in importance to taking the museum into the schoolroom is taking classes to the museum. To get the greatest value out of such visitation requires a good deal of care. If classes are too large, it is difficult to give educative guidance. Consequently, we encourage their coming in small groups. Then there is danger that the pupils, attracted by curiosity, will glance at many things without intelligently seeing anything. To obviate this, we select a comparatively narrow range of related objects, let them observe these with such explanation as may be needful, and then send them off with the eager desire to come again and study other things. To facilitate this process, one or more teachers always accompany the pupils. Where it seems necessary, the teachers them-

selves are instructed beforehand in regard to the objects, in order that they may assist in explanations. Of course, these class visits are frequent from our own training schools and from the ward schools of the city. But not infrequently teachers of country schools near at hand and of village schools on the interurbans bring in their pupils for study in the museum. In every case we endeavor to focus their attention upon some particular group of articles illustrating some phase of history, in order that they may carry away something definite and lasting rather than a confused and fleeting recollection of many things.

We regard very highly for educative purposes special exhibits. These are made up of material segregated from the rest of the museum, and selected because it expresses a unitary idea. The anniversary of an important event, the illustration of the evolution of some phase of history, etc., are the occasions for these special exhibits. We aim not to have them frequently enough to become commonplace, and yet we want them often enough to be expected.

We have had five such displays so far this school year. The first was in celebration of the centennial of the Star Spangled Banner. Perhaps the most striking feature was an exact replica, four feet long, of the original Star Spangled Banner. The next display was in celebration of Chicago Day, October 9. Relics of the fire and of the Columbian Exposition, including the eighty official photographs of the fair by Jackson, were the most interesting parts of the exhibit. Another interesting display was a series of colored posters showing the military uniforms of the European nations engaged in the present war, together with an account of their national songs, and a twelve-inch silk flag of each. Perhaps our most extensive exhibit, and the one best wrought out, was put on in February, showing how men have solved the problem of apparel. It must have consisted of one hundred fifty or more items, large and small. A newspaper description of the display is printed as an appendix to this paper. Just at present a rather varied display of things from the Philippines is on.

In course of time nearly every article in the museum will be segregated for particular study in these special exhibits. Many articles will appear several times in different groupings. We are careful to have a well-defined unitary idea back of these groupings, and we endeavor to make this idea clear by ample labeling, by public explanations to our student body, and by newspaper articles.

We are fortunate in the possession of an admirable exhibition hall. There is a spacious, well-lighted corridor adjacent to the history department. Around the walls of this corridor, and in portable cases, there is ample room for a display as extensive as we can ever desire. Through this corridor nearly every student in school passes nearly every day in the year. Consequently, the exhibits are admirably obtruded upon the attention of all, and easy opportunity is given for a study of the exhibit item by item



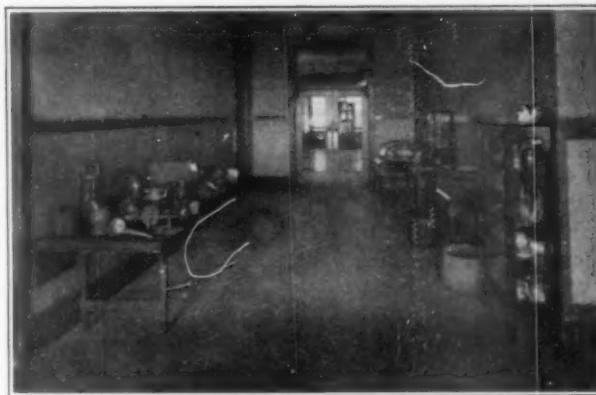
at odd moments without sacrificing time. And they do study again and again as much as anyone could reasonably wish.

We try to time special exhibits when there are unusual gatherings at the Normal School or in the community. Notices in the local press apprise the public of the particular attraction. That the public is interested is manifest. Not long ago the Woman's Club held a session in the Normal Auditorium. Before and after the session upwards of two hundred people visited the special exhibit and the museum proper. Last summer the Commercial Club held a merchants' picnic in a neighboring park. During the day fully five hundred people visited our collections.

We are just inaugurating a new kind of special display. Every now and then we shall put out in our exhibition hall those articles which have been acquired during the preceding two or three months. Of course, there will be no unitary idea back of the array, but it will afford visitors a chance to give the articles a "once over" before they go into the general collection. It will also doubtless stimulate some to make contributions to the museum.

We endeavor to apply the special exhibit idea out in the community as well as at the Normal School. On a number of public occasions we have made special displays of material appropriate to the occasion. On one of its social evenings the Commercial Club had short addresses on Mexico. We took down a case well filled with articles from Mexico which attracted a good deal of attention. A children's missionary meeting was enlivened by an array of things from mission lands. Occasionally we have a small collection of more than usually interesting material in the show window of some of the local stores. These instances are typical of others of a similar nature in which we seek to serve the public.

In passing, we may remark that the press of our city is extremely liberal toward our enterprise. Every few days there is something of interest pertaining to the museum. Sometimes it may be only a paragraph. Often it is a column or more. Our special exhibits are always liberally noticed. Of course, this attention very materially extends the usefulness of the museum and helps to make it a bond



A CORRIDOR DISPLAY OF OLD COOKING IMPLEMENTS.

between the school and the community. The Commercial Club, too, helps by issuing a little leaflet which is sent out by the business men of our city by the ten thousand. It enumerates among the attractions of DeKalb, the "Normal Museum of History."

Another method of putting the museum to use is to take an object or series of objects as the basis of public address. Just at present we are giving a number of talks on the evolution of weapons to the general assembly of normal school students and training school pupils. We have fifty or more articles, ranging from the rude war club of the South Sea islander up to the modern breech-loading rifle. About all the important stages of development are represented except the match-lock musket. Some specimens are rare, such as a deer's rib with a flint arrowhead still imbedded in it, and such as a paper cartridge of Civil War times. It is hard to tell who are most interested in the exhibition and accompanying remarks—faculty, students or primary pupils. It is a capital illustration of how a comparatively uninteresting subject may be illumined and made understandable even to children by the use of concrete material.

In a literary way the museum is largely used. Its stores afford the subject for many themes in the classes in English. The whole senior class of upwards of one hundred fifty members recently was required to get its inspiration for its weekly theme from the museum. A whole number of the "Northern Illinois," the school paper, was devoted not long ago to the same topic. The "Norther," the student annual, gives liberal space to the same thing. It is needless to say that these things lead to a widespread and an attentive study of the museum collections.

It may be wondered what we do with our museum from the ordinary viewpoint as a repository and place of display of historical material. Here also we endeavor to obtain the maximum service. First, the museum rooms are always open. The doors are not only not locked, but also never closed. Whenever the Normal building is open, anyone can visit the museum. Secondly, we are very careful to so arrange the material that all objects on display may be seen.



A CORNER OF THE MUSEUM.

We have observed that in most museums, except the largest, where they are not limited as to space, many things are so placed as to be seen with difficulty if at all. We would store things entirely out of sight, and exhibit them only occasionally, rather than have them only partially visible all the time. In the third place, we try to so group objects and to so label them that they will be self-explanatory. By so doing we enable every visitor to obtain knowledge as well as entertainment from his visit.

We have already indicated the attention our special exhibits receive from school and public. But when there is nothing out of the ordinary to see, the number of visitors is gratifying. There is hardly an hour in the day when someone is not wandering about the rooms—mostly students, of course, but also many others. On a recent Saturday we were at our office



PROFESSOR PAGE AND A CORNER OF THE MUSEUM.

most of the forenoon. It is necessary to pass the office door in going to the museum. It is safe to say that there were at least fifty visitors, although there was nothing unusual to attract them. We discover that a good many get in Saturday afternoon, although only a rear door of the building is open, and only the caretakers are there. Even on Sundays a good many gain admittance through the courtesy of the superintendent of the building, or of members of the faculty who have keys.

We trust that by this time it may be inferred what is our notion of a museum. Our ideal of a museum is a room spacious enough and amply supplied with shelves and cases for all of a collection, but with everything empty. We would have *everything out at work all the time* in the schoolroom or in special exhibits. Why? Because in this manner a museum

may be a mighty aid in making the past ages live again, which is the chief function of the teacher of history. This reminds us of our text for this "sermon," which we forgot at the beginning, but which will do as well for closing. "The historian fondly imagines his great trouble is to find the truth of the Past. Simple-hearted creature! His supreme difficulty is to make the Past thinkable."<sup>2</sup>

## PAGE GOES INTO CLOTHING LINE

History Teacher at the Normal Has Most Clever Exhibit

### APPAREL OF EVERY KIND

Wearables of All Periods and All Lands Are Shown in Novel Collection in the Museum of History at Normal School

Few normal schools have a museum of history, and some of those that have make little use of their collections. That of the local Normal School is distinguished from most others by the very active use which is made of the material. Special exhibits are one of the means by which its resources are put to use. At the present time there is on display in the east corridor on the second floor of the main building an exhibit of articles showing how men of other times and of other climes have solved the problem of apparel.

Here is a series of small models (or dolls) showing the dress of various classes in China and Korea. The bamboo sweat-jacket and sweat-cuffs from Korea are curious. Eighteen kinds of footwear from three continents and nine different countries, the oldest article dating back to 1778, indicate a surprising vanity in this line.

A baby hood, bonnets, an old lady's cap, three kinds of Korean hats, a Mexican sombrero and reproduction of a Middle Age helmet show the head covering of men. Hand-wrought wedding veils of a hundred years ago and a wedding vest of cream colored silk of sixty years ago, and a Korean bridegroom's hat appeal to sentiment.

A man's shawl of Civil War times, a "Wide Awake" cap and cape, a Mexican rain-coat, and a poncho from the Spanish-Americas exhibit a variety of top coats. Thomas S. Murray's service uniform worn in the Porto Rico campaign, displayed "life size," has been promptly dubbed "Dannie Deever" by the students.

Old brass buttons, a pewter button, Filipino buttons made from oyster shells, clam shells with the holes in them made by cutting out disks for pearl buttons, and an encyclopedia of 1765, with a full-page cut, showing the old process of making buttons by hand, constitute an interesting chapter on buttons.

Bracelets, wrought of hair, earrings, an immense amber back comb, bamboo combs from China, and a Filipino necklace are from the realm of feminine ornamentation. A Chinese fan, a Korean fan, and some "sweet girl" graduate fans give some indication of the evolution of the cooling process.

Silk "visiting" aprons reveal the social proclivities of our grandmothers. Bustles of varying sizes and hoop skirts show the frivolities of a generation ago.

There are spectacles of colonial days and some not so old, but still queer, as well as a pair from Korea. Native fabrics from Hawaii and the Philippines attract attention.

<sup>2</sup> N. W. Stephenson in *Drama*, May, 1912, p. 202.

A series of fashion plates goes back as far as 1790. One of 1894 is about as curious as any in the list. A dry goods price list of 1864, with present-day prices in the margin, reveals some rather startling facts.

The list of implements for manufacturing clothing (some of them about 200 years old) is rather extensive—a cotton spinning wheel, flax wheels, a flax hetchel, wool cards, a swift for skeining, a clock reel, a niddy-noddy, a tape and garter loom, one of the earliest Wheeler and Wilson sewing machines, a sewing-bird, etc.

But there are many other articles in this exhibit, all designed to show the one idea of the evolution of apparel. The public is invited to visit and study this display. It will be in place until about the middle of next week. If anyone discovers he has articles which would add variety to the collection, his co-operation will be welcome.—*De Kalb Chronicle*, February 10, 1915.

In the "Outlook" for October 27 is an article by Prof. A. B. Hart on the "Antecedents of the Balkan Crisis." The fundamental difficulty in the Balkans, according to Professor Hart, is the rivalry of races, languages and religions, which is fiercer there than anywhere else. The ultimate and implacable cause of the war is the geographical situation of the Balkans, which is associated with the age-long struggle between Europe and Asia, plus the violent race rivalry. The breaking strain behind the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente was over the question as to whether Serbia should be allowed to develop as the nucleus of a Balkan Power which would draw the Slavs of Croatia, Slavonia and Bosnia from Austro-Hungary. It is natural to infer, concludes the author, that Bulgaria has been promised large gains for her alliance with Germany; Macedonia, Adrianople, probably Salonika, now held by the Greeks, and possibly an approach to the Adriatic through Albania, which would combine to make Bulgaria the leading power.

#### WAR BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Leaflet No. 39 of the (English) Historical Association deals with a supplementary bibliography of the war. The first section deals with antecedents of the war, including origin, cause, ideas leading to the war, the diplomacy up to the outbreak of the war, the belligerent nations and "German intrigue, barbarity and kultur." The second section deals with the war, and takes up the war under the following headings: Descriptions of eye-witnesses and correspondents, histories of the war, technical aspects of the war, including naval, military, legal, economic and geographical aspects; American opinion respecting the war. Section three deals with works treating of the outcome of the war; the peace settlement and problems raised by the war. Miscellaneous publications are grouped in section four under such headings as pamphlets, poetry and maps. The bibliography is the work of Prof. H. C. Hearnshaw.

The Catholic University of America has published No. 1 of its "American Church History Seminar Publications," reporting the work done by members of the Seminar during the academic year 1914 and 1915. The topics treated are taken from European and American history.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In the "Ecclesiastical Review" for November, 1915, Rev. Frederick J. Zwierlein, of St. Bernard's Seminary, Rochester, has an article on "The Delay in the Divorce Trial of Henry VIII and Katherine of Arragon," with especial reference to Cardinal Wolsey's management of the case. The article is most interesting, and is more or less a defense of the policy of the Church. Wolsey is held to be too much of a diplomat in the king's service, and not enough of an ecclesiastic in spirit not to take advantage of the plight to which the papacy had been reduced. The delay of the Church in the matter is caused by the situation itself; as it was a most delicate task to do justice to both King and Queen and yet not to precipitate the loss of another kingdom to the Roman Catholic faith, and watchful waiting was the only wise policy.

In the October number of the "South Atlantic Quarterly" appear the "Letters of a Virginia Cadet (Major Thomas Rowland, C. S. A.) at West Point, 1859-61," which not only give an intimate account of cadet life, but which touch the political condition of the times.

In the October "Fortnightly," T. H. S. Escott has contributed some interesting facts on the history of diplomacy in his "The New Diplomacy and the Old Tradition." The main purpose of the article is to point out the necessity of democratizing diplomacy, thus bringing about a return to the popular methods of two centuries ago.

In the "Overland Monthly" for November, 1915, W. W. Canfield has a brief but quite interesting sketch of "Vasco, the Bandit of the Pinnacles," a picturesque representative of a neglected period of frontier history.

Jan D. Colvin's article on "The Germans in England" in the "National Review" for October, 1915, is the introductory chapter to his larger work on the same topic about to be published in London. It traces the historical relationship existing between Germany and England from medieval times—especially their commercial dealings from the days of the Hanseatic League, when the German cities by their command of silver, and, therefore, of exchange and of trade routes, and of sea power outside the Mediterranean, had unusual opportunities for expansion which England allowed to exist unmolested until after the days of Henry VIII, since which time there has never been perfect commercial harmony between the two powers.

"The General Situation in Russia" is discussed in the "Contemporary Review" for October, 1915, by Colonel F. N. Maude, C.B., who attempts to explain why the Germans have been constantly disappointed in their efforts to meet the Russian situation.

A most interesting article on the Jesuit teaching in the sixteenth century is in "La Civiltà Cattolica" for September, 1915, in which the author gives them credit for bringing about new ideals in method, rather than for any advancement of knowledge.

An interesting journal of a French soldier is published in the October "Revue des Deux Mondes," under the title, "En Argonne"—by Apremont. The journal covers the period of fighting from January 11 to March 2, 1915.



# Political Parties and Party Leaders

## A Subject for an Historical Course

BY PROFESSOR JAMES A. WOODBURN, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

I shall attempt to set forth in this article a possible course in American history on the subject "American Parties and Party Leaders," a course which may be adapted not only to college classes, but to the higher grades in our secondary schools.

Such a course may be best used for upper class high school students who have already had some American history, and who know something of the main facts in the general development of the nation under the constitution. The knowledge that is presupposed while being drawn upon is to be supplemented and enlarged by attention to a special phase of national history.

In the conduct of the course, a high school textbook would be useful, if not necessary, to review the basic facts which the student might wish to call into use, but much of the success of the course would have to depend upon the supplementary reading of the student and the way the materials and the readings are used, and the results are arranged and presented in class. The teacher, as leader and guide, would have to outline the course and give special directions and assignments in conducting it. It is not made for him in texts and outlines that are already at hand. This very fact is sure to make the course the more original, and would be likely to make it the more profitable to both teacher and pupil.

The defense, or claims, for such a course as I have named may be based upon a number of arguments:

(1) American history, especially with advanced classes, had better be presented not in short chronological chunks of unrelated topics, but rather in harmony with the figure of speech that has become familiar by splitting the historical log lengthwise. To take a block of time and study all the worthy events and happenings within that time, regardless of how much they are unrelated to one another, is not so much to our purpose as to take up a subject, or a movement, or an institution, and to study it in its progress and development, without reference to administrations or decades or divisions or arbitrary stages and stopping points. Monroe's administration, for instance, suggests a varied miscellany of interesting topics and studies—Indian troubles, territorial acquisition, the genesis or continuance of the Monroe Doctrine, the early history of the Second United States Bank, financial panics, the tariff, internal improvements, nationalizing judicial decisions, the Missouri controversy, the "era of good feeling," personal and presidential politics, and some other topics of interest and importance. But unless it be the primary object of a course to present an account of Monroe's administration as a subject of special and detailed study, it were better, in the view of the contention for which this article stands, to separate these

themes as subjects of study and pursue each in connection with the events and opinions related to it, some of which have gone before, some of which follow after. Let us study the Monroe Doctrine, not in an isolated way merely in its beginning, but in a continuous and connected way, connecting its beginnings with its changes and later applications. Let us study the Slavery Controversy as a movement in its unbroken progress, not in lessons that are interrupted and placed far apart by the interjection of miscellaneous and heterogeneous material in no way related to the slave system and the controversies and movement arising therefrom. Significant facts properly related for the promotion of our historical understanding should be the object in view.

It is with this purpose that I would take a broad skein of our history like the Political Party and Party Leaders for continuous development.

(2) The second postulate, almost self-evident, is that biography is one of the most interesting and valuable subjects of historical study. The facts of history may, to a very large degree, be gathered around the lives of our great men. This is a field that offers inviting and engaging cultivation for youthful minds—indeed, of all minds young and old alike. As for myself, I do not hesitate to confess that the most engaging and profitable books that I find to read are the autobiographies of great men. There is no richer field to which we can direct the attention of young students than to the field of worthy biography. If it be thought that party leaders have not been so worthy as many others that might be selected, it may still be said what no one is likely to deny, that our party history is not without its worthy names. The lives, the contests, the speeches, the policies, the successes and failures of our great party leaders—these offer to teacher and student a very large field of study in our national history. Hamilton, Adams, Jefferson, Marshall and Burr; Madison and Monroe, Jay, Gallatin, the Randolphs and the Clintons in the earlier period; Jackson, Webster, the younger Adams, Calhoun, Benton and Clay and others in the first half of the middle period; Chase, Sumner, Seward, Lincoln, Davis, Toombs, Stephens, Douglas and numerous others in the decade preceding the Civil War, not to speak of later party champions, indicate political biographies and contests most inviting to student and reader. The study of these men in their relations to parties and party conflicts, and in connection with methods of nominations and elections and the issues involved in national contests, the claims presented and maneuvers attempted, will, as is readily seen, call into use large and important aspects of our history.

(3) A third contention is that the study of politics

and parties is of high importance to one who wishes to understand the forces and struggles that have made the American constitution and government what it is to-day. I am far from believing that "history is past politics and politics is present history." But the history of politics has cut so wide a swath in American life that young citizens in our schools should be introduced in some serious and positive way to the significance of our party history in the development of our government and its work.

The relation of the government and of the presidency to parties may be briefly used as an illustration of this point. Our government is managed by parties. If we are to understand how we are governed, we must understand how our parties are governed, and, in a measure, how they have grown. All our officers, from the President down to city councilmen and township officers, are usually nominated by party processes and selected on party tickets. The party is the means or agency by which representative popular government is carried on. Party opinion, party forces, party leadership, party conflicts, the party as an institution—these deserve attention and constructive work from the teacher of history.

All the American Presidents, except Washington, were elected as party leaders. They conducted their administrations not only with a view to the welfare of the country, but with a desire to promote the interest and success of their respective parties. Every President following Washington made up his cabinet from his party followers. The exceptions are so few they need not be mentioned. The President as party leader has taken counsel of his party managers in the States; his appointments were from among his party followers and workers; and in many ways the President has sought to lead his party, to strengthen it, and to make it successful in the next election. Washington, it is true, sought to conduct his administration without regard to party. He deplored party strife and an excess of party zeal. He thought of parties as factions, and he feared that parties would become *sectional*, divided by geographical lines, and that men would be sectional partisans rather than national patriots, and that party struggles would divide the country into factions and prevent what America then most needed—the spirit of unity and a love for a united country that would enable the States to maintain their independence against foreign influence.

Moreover, as is well known, Washington looked upon the Presidency, as did many of the men who framed the constitution, as being apart from parties, or above parties, like the English Kingship, and he sought at first to conduct his administration by holding a fair, judicial and impartial attitude toward differing party groups. He, therefore, called into the same cabinet Hamilton and Jefferson, who differed on almost every public question, and who turned out to be bitter opponents of one another and the leaders of their respective parties for the next ten years. Even while they were together in Washington's cabinet, they fought one another bitterly on almost every question that arose. Washington, wise and concilia-

tory as he was, found it impossible to reconcile them, and when he appeared to lean toward Hamilton on the financial and constitutional issues that came up, Jefferson resigned, thinking (as indicated in his Mazzei letter) that Washington had been led astray, and out of office Jefferson became the leader of a party of opposition.

So at the threshold, or at the launching of the Ship of State under the Constitution, we find parties appearing, engendered by the differing dispositions of men and their attitude toward society and government. From that day to this there have been two main parties in the country, the party *in power* striving to stay in, and the party *out of power* striving to get in. Thus we see that around the fact of party and from it as a starting point the history of government in America is to be studied. Party is a constantly recurring theme throughout the story and it is doubtful if there is a more important one from the standpoint of the organized State.

Since I am suggesting such a theme for a course in American history, it may be profitable for me to give here an illustrative lesson or series of lessons by a topical outline. The lessons suggested should properly be preceded by a brief presentation of American parties before the Constitution and in the constitutional convention—the Large State Party and the Small State Party, the tendencies toward, respectively, nationalism and States rights, and the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists in the struggle over the adoption of the Constitution, and also by an explanation of the Electoral System presented in the Constitution.

Some such syllabus as the following may be given to be made more or less detailed as the demands may seem to require.

#### EARLY POLITICAL PARTIES: FALL OF THE FEDERALISTS IN 1800.

##### I. The Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans. The issues dividing the Hamiltonian Federalists and the Jeffersonian Republicans, 1790-1800.

1. Hamilton's Financial Measures.
  - (a) Funding.
  - (b) Discrimination.
  - (c) Assumption.
  - (d) Bank.
  - (e) Excise.
2. Foreign Policy.
  - (a) French Revolution.
  - (b) The Franco-English War.
  - (c) Jay's Treaty.
3. National authority vs. State authority.
4. Executive authority vs. Congressional authority.
5. Construction of the Constitution.
6. The Function and Sphere of Government. "Continuing basis of division between parties." Explain.
7. The character of the Federal Government. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, 1798-99. Constitutional doctrine; political and historical significance; authorship; Madison's explanation in 1831. Read the Resolutions, pp. 267-78, MacDonald's Documentary Source Book of American History.

## II. Causes of Federalist Defeat, 1800.

1. Mistaken Legislation.
  - (a) Alien and Sedition Laws.
  - (b) Judiciary Act.
  - (c) Naturalization Act.
  - (d) Increase of the Navy and other means of defense.
  - (e) Increase loans and taxes.
2. Dissension among Federalist Leaders.
  - (a) Over Adams' Foreign Policy.
  - (b) Cabinet Quarrel.
  - (c) Hamilton's attack on Adams.
  - (d) Dispute over army appointments.
3. Growth of Republican ideas.
 

Jefferson's influence; immigration; distrust of government; Democratic Clubs.
4. Burr and the New York Democratic Machine.
5. Degeneration of the Federalists.
 

Election schemes; Hamilton's chicanery; partisan politics in administration. Personal and factional antagonism toward Adams. Adams' unpopularity.
6. Masterful leadership of Jefferson.

## III. The Result of the Election.

### Method of Choosing the Electors:

- (a) By Legislatures.
- (b) By Districts.
- (c) By popular vote on a common ballot. Were the electors free to vote as they chose in this election, or were they bound by party obligations?

## IV. The Burr-Jefferson Contest in the House.

### Attitude and intrigues of the Federalist leaders.

### QUERIES.

1. What influences brought about Jefferson's election?
2. Why did Hamilton prefer Jefferson to Burr? Political and personal result of this?
3. Under the Electoral system then in use after parties had come to control the voting of the Presidential Electors, why would the election of the President always have been thrown into the House? Show the effect of this on promoting the adoption of the 12th Amendment. State the substance of this amendment.

Such an outline should be followed by a limited list of definite references. A high school library of reasonable extent is pre-supposed in such a study. A high school without some kind of working library is like a department of physics without laboratory or apparatus. The more specific the references are made the better, and they should, of course, relate to books known to be accessible and within the grasp of the students concerned. Standard well-known books may be used, and it would be effective if the teacher would make specific citations to chapters and pages. For instance, for the outline above:

Bassett, J. S.: *The Federalist System*, Chapters III, IX, XIX.

Gordy, J. P.: *Political History of the United States*, Chapter XXI.

Stanwood: *History of the Presidency*, Chapters IV, V.

Fish, C. R.: *The Development of American Nationality*, pp. 52-57; 80-85.

Bryce: *American Commonwealth*, Vol. II, pp. 8-10.

Schouler: *History of the United States*, Vol. I, pp. 165-169; 200-213; 420-426; 488-500.

McMaster: *History of the People of the United States*, Vol. II, pp. 48-53, "The Political Creed of a Federalist in 1791," and "Of a Republican," and pp. 98-94, 204-212, on the "Spread of Republicanism" and the Democratic "Self-Created Societies."

Bassett: *Short History of the United States*, Chapter XIII.

Johnson, Allen: *Union and Democracy (The Riverside Series)*, Chapters V, VI.

These books and others of the kind should be made accessible, and special assignments to individual students should be made for readings and reports in recitation. The Statesmen Series and other biographies should be drawn on for the study of the contributions made by various public men to the political and party contests of the time.

It is easily possible to make out such lessons in outlines as will cover a hundred years or more of our party history. The principles of Jeffersonian democracy, the Federalists in opposition, the influence of the War of 1812 on parties, the period of personal politics, notable presidential elections like that of 1824 or 1840, the struggle between the Jacksonian Democrats and the Clay Whigs, the influence of the anti-slavery movement on parties, the Free Soilers, and the rise of the modern Republican party and its electoral struggles to 1860—these are some of the many themes in party history which give themselves to analysis and special study after the manner indicated by the outline already given.

Let us look at a typical examination paper that might be set for a class that had been studying "Parties and Party Leaders" from 1829 to 1860:

I. Account for Jackson's triumph in 1832 and Clay's defeat in 1844.

II. Account for Democratic defeat in 1840 and 1848.

III. Trace the influence of the Anti-slavery movement on parties from 1830 to 1844, and state in what specific ways the Liberty Party proposed to use the power of the National Government against slavery.

IV. Of the Free Soil Party, state

1. The circumstance giving rise to it.
2. The elements of which it was composed.
3. How it differed from and resembled
  - (a) The antecedent Liberty Party and the
  - (b) The subsequent Republican Party.

V. Of Stephen A. Douglas, explain

1. His "doctrine of supersedure."
2. His doctrine of "popular sovereignty."
3. His doctrine of "unfriendly legislation."
4. His Anti-Lecompton position.

VI. Discuss the origin of the Republican Party in the following aspects:

1. The occasion which led to it.
2. Its primary purpose.
3. Its constituent elements.



4. Why its name was chosen.
  5. Name six of its prominent early leaders, including not more than two of the same party antecedents.
  6. Its issue and party strength in its first presidential campaign.
- VII. Give a brief identifying description of
1. The "Old Line Whigs."
  2. The "Hunkers."
  3. The "Anti-Nebraska Democrats."
  4. The "finality men."
  5. The "constitutional Unionists."
- VIII. Identify briefly by political record and party affiliation:
1. James G. Birney.
  2. Hugh L. White.
  3. Silas Wright.
  4. George M. Dallas.
  5. Robert J. Walker.
  6. John P. Hale.
  7. Charles Sumner.
  8. William H. Seward.
  9. John C. Breckinridge.
  10. Thurlow Weed.
  11. William L. Marey.
  12. Rufus Choate.
- IX. What part did Abraham Lincoln play in American politics prior to 1860?

I give these questions and topics not to indicate what may be suitable in amount to require of a class at one writing or at one sitting, but as showing the possible scope and nature of studies and readings along the line of parties and their leaders.

I think it is not necessary in this article to take up space in giving any extended bibliography for the kind of study that I have indicated. McKee's *Party Platforms* or Stanwood's *History of the Presidency* might be made the basis of such a course. But it should be widened and enriched through the use by members of the class of many of the standard and interesting authorities, and, so far as possible, by the use of some of the sources, letters, speeches, newspapers, pamphlets, campaign text-books, etc. In this

way, it is to be hoped, the student may be introduced to and be led to find and cultivate interest in the lives of public men. Party history has not been made a special subject for historical writing, and not many books devoted to this particular aspect of our history are to be found. I take it for granted that the American biographies and general histories and the magazines with special articles, from which material for this kind of study may be drawn, are well known to the readers of this magazine.

If it should be asked whether party history should be studied in separate parties at different chronological times, or whether attempt should be made to consider parties in connection with national development, and to study the origin and development of parties as they come to be related to one another in the political issues, contests and personalities of our history, I should say decidedly that the latter course is the one to be pursued. As no man liveth to himself, so no party can be very profitably studied by itself. Let parties be studied as they confront and combat one another, as they influence and modify one another, and as they find their causes and results, their defeats, and their victories, in the events and forces of their day. Such a study is likely to cultivate an interest in current politics, and while history may not repeat itself with any degree of precision, yet even the young student whose knowledge of political contests may be limited to the pending presidential campaign or to the one that has just passed by, will find in repeated instances that the conflicts and opinions and incidents of the past are constantly reminding us of the affairs of the present; and he may be brought to find in the history of parties, politics and statesmen (successful politicians who are dead) a subject of perennial interest and of no small profit.

[Reference should be made to Prof. J. A. Woodburn's "Political Parties and Party Problems" and to P. O. Ray, "An Introduction to Political Parties and Practical Politics."—EDITOR.]

## Program of American Historical Association Meetings

The thirty-first annual meeting of the American Historical Association will be held in Washington, December 27 to 31, 1915. At the same time and place, sessions will be held of the American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Society of International Law, the Pan-American Scientific Congress, the International Congress of Americanists, the American Anthropological Association, the American Folk-lore Society, the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

The following is a preliminary statement of the program of the American Historical Association:

### MONDAY, DECEMBER 27.

1-10 p. m.—Registration.

9 p. m.—Reception at Pan-American Union.

### TUESDAY, DECEMBER 28.

10 a. m.—Medieval History Conference. Chairman, Charles H. Haskins, Harvard University. Subject, "Medieval Colonization."

James Westfall Thompson, University of Chicago, "East German Colonization."

Howard L. Gray, Bryn Mawr College, "Problems of Anglo-Saxon Settlement."

Eugene H. Byrne, University of Wisconsin, "The Genoese as Colonizers."

Constantine E. McGuire, Washington, "Monastic Colonization in Spain."

10 a. m.—American History. Chairman, Thomas W. Page, University of Virginia.

Frances G. Davenport, Carnegie Institution of Washington, "American and European Diplomacy to 1648."

Louis B. Schmidt, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, "The Economic History of American Agriculture as a Field for Study."

Victor S. Clark, Carnegie Institution of Washington, "The Influence of Manufactures Upon Political Sentiment in the United States from 1820 to 1860."

Frank Weitenkampf, New York Public Library, "Pictorial Documents as Illustrating American History."

3 p. m.—General Meeting with the American Economic and the American Political Science Association, American Society of International Law, and with Sections VI and IX of the Pan-American Scientific Congress, in the interest of a National Archive Building. Chairman, Hon. Miles Poindexter, United States Senator from Washington.

Gaillard Hunt, Library of Congress, "The Value of Archives to the Administration."

Benjamin F. Shambaugh, University of Iowa, "Some Examples of What American States, Cities and Business Corporations Have Done for the Preservation of their Records." Illustrated.

Leo F. Stock, Carnegie Institute of Washington, "Some Examples of Present Conditions as Respecting Federal Archives." Illustrated.

Louis A. Simon, Office of the Supervising Architect, Treasury Department, Washington, "Architect's Studies of the Proposed Building for the National Archives." Illustrated.

8 p. m.—Joint Meeting with the American Economic Association. Chairman, Rear-Admiral Charles Herbert Stockton, U. S. N., president of George Washington University, and representative of the Columbia Historical Society of Washington.

Address of welcome.

Presidential addresses.

H. Morse Stephens, University of California, president of the American Historical Association, "Nationalism and History."

Walter F. Willcox, Cornell University, president of the American Economic Association, "The Development of Spencer's Social Philosophy."

9.30 p. m.—Smoker. Cosmos Club. Entrance, 25 Madison Place (Lafayette Square).

#### WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 29.

10 a. m.—Ancient History. Chairman, Ephraim Emer-ton, Harvard University. Subject, "Economic Causes of International Rivalries and Wars in Ancient Times."

Papers by William S. Ferguson, Harvard University; George W. Botsford, Columbia University.

Discussion led by James H. Breasted, University of Chicago; Tenney Frank, Bryn Mawr College; Arthur E. R. Boak, University of Michigan; Ralph V. D. Magoffin, Johns Hopkins University.

10 a. m.—Conference of Historical Societies. Chairman, Lyon G. Tyler, president of William and Mary College. Secretary, Augustus H. Shearer, Newberry Library.

Remarks by chairman.

Report of the secretary.

Reports of committees, and other business.

Subject, "The Papers of Business Houses in Historical Work: Their Collection by Historical Societies," Milo M. Quaife, Madison, Wisconsin.

2 p. m.—Annual business meeting.

8.30 p. m.—American History. Chairman, Worthington C. Ford, Massachusetts Historical Society.

William I. Hull, Swarthmore College, "The Monroe Doctrine as Applied to Mexico."

Oswald Garrison Villard, New York, "The Submarine and Torpedo in the Blockade of the Confederacy."

Hon. Albert J. Beveridge, formerly United States Senator from Indiana, "John Marshall."

8.30-11 p. m.—Reception at New National Museum.

#### THURSDAY, DECEMBER 30.

10 a. m.—Modern European History. Chairman, Paul van Dyke, Princeton University.

Paper by James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University, "Historical Aspects of Nationalism."

Discussion led by Edward B. Krehbiel, Leland Stanford University; William E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania; William T. Laprade, Trinity College, North Carolina; Ellery C. Stowell, Columbia University; Thomas F. Moran, Purdue University.

2 p. m.—Joint session with the International Congress of Americanists and with Section I of the Pan-American Scientific Congress, the American Anthropological Association, and the American Folk-lore Society. New National Museum. Chairman, George L. Burr, Cornell University.

Papers by Hon. Bernard Moses, University of California, "The Social Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in South America."

William H. Babcock, Washington, "Indications of Visits of White Men to America before Columbus."

Alphonse Gagnon, Department of Public Works and Labor, Quebec, "Le Vinland—sa localisation probable."

Philip A. Mears, Cambridge, Mass., "The Rise of the Inca Empire."

Frederick W. Hodge, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, "The Rise and Destruction of a National Indian Portrait Gallery."

8.30 p. m.—Joint session with Section VI of the Pan-American Scientific Congress. Chairman, President H. Morse Stephens.

Paper by Hon. Henry White, Washington, "Diplomacy and Politics."

Ida M. Tarbell, New York, "The Education of the American Woman in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century."

Hon. David Jayne Hill, Washington, "A Missing Chapter in Franco-American History."

The Rt. Hon. Viscount Bryce, letter to the American Historical Association.

#### FRIDAY, DECEMBER 31.

10 a. m.—Joint session with the American Political Science Association. Chairman, President Ernst Freund.

Subject, "The Growth of Nationalism in the British Empire."

Papers by George M. Wrong, University of Toronto; A. Maurice Low, Washington.

Discussion led by George Burton Adams, Yale University; George Louis Beer, New York.

10 a. m.—Joint session with the Naval History Society. Chairman, Prof. Robert M. Johnston, Harvard University.

Papers by Rear Admiral French Ensor Chadwick, U. S. N., "The de Grasse Papers;" Captain Rhees, U. S. A., "Bladensburg;" Carl R. Fish, University of Wisconsin, "The Organization of the Wisconsin Volunteers;" Captain Hollis C. Clark, U. S. A., "Report on Publication of Revolutionary Military Records."

2.30 p. m.—Conference of History Teachers. Joint session with the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, and with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Chairman, John Martin Vincent, Johns Hopkins University.

Subject, "The Definition of Historical Courses in Secondary Schools. Whether More Precise Definition is Advisable Either for College Entrance Requirements or for General High School Courses."

Discussion led by James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn; Herbert D. Foster, Dartmouth College; Henry E. Bourne, Western Reserve University; Miss Margaret McGill, Newton High School, Newtonville; Eugene M. Violette, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York.

# Answers in American History<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

In a series of papers published in this MAGAZINE, the failure of many, if not most, of the secondary schools to teach American history and civics has been discussed at some length. It is particularly unfortunate that our educational inefficiency should survive with greater vitality in this field than in any other, for it is one of our boasts that education is the arch on which our system of self-government rests. If this boast is true, then surely no part of the child's training may more properly be called the keystone of that arch than the training which is organized for the purpose of orienting him in his social and political surroundings, and of training him to think as the member of a self-governed community should think. Republican institutions will never really exist until the problem of training young citizens reaches nearer to solution than it has done thus far. This series of papers has been inspired partly by a wish to explain certain notions of the lines along which reform seems to be needed, and partly to defend those responsible for the examination of candidates in American history and civics from the unjust charge that the questions set by them are too hard, or that the grading of papers in answer to these questions is too severe.

In the effort to accomplish these two purposes, it has been shown that candidates fail for three reasons which are somewhat peculiar to this subject, in addition to the many reasons which cause failure in all subjects listed in the college entrance requirements. A brief reference may be made to these three reasons.

The first is that many principals will not permit their teachers to teach history an adequate number of periods per week. Adequate here may be defined as the number of periods called for by the College Board's rules for a five-hour examination, or rather for an examination set for a five-hour subject. There has been given no intelligent reply to the charge, frequently repeated, that many schools are sending up candidates with a three-hour preparation to take an examination set for five-hour pupils. Principals who send up such candidates are about as fair to them as would be a general who sent his soldiers with three-foot lances against an enemy with five-foot lances. It is no defence for them to claim that a few get through in such circumstances. Those who do survive such an ordeal have nevertheless been misguided by those whose duty it is to conserve their energies and organize their work. The attitude of such principals needs no further condemnation.

The second, like the first, grows out of a curious idea that history is a subject to be mastered by casual reading in one's hours of ease, that it is not a useful means of mental discipline, and that therefore anyone can direct a pupil's work in it during the limited

time he is expected to devote to it. On this hypothesis many principals assign the classes in American history to teachers trained to deal with Latin, mathematics, athletics, and so on. Of course, this is not done at first-class schools. But the graduates of first-class schools have no difficulty with the examination as one may learn from any teacher of history in a first-class school, where trained university graduates are permitted to give a fair amount of time to really teaching history. It is with the second and third-rate schools that we have to do in the present discussion; and there must be some of these, for all parents cannot afford to send their children to the first-rate schools. Doubtless this disposition to entrust history to those not prepared to teach it is partly a result also of that crying weakness of our whole public life which permits the sending of consular agents to foreign countries, even the language of which the consular agent cannot speak. Until we have discovered that there is some relation between training and efficiency, we must muddle along towards the failure which many prophesy for republican institutions.

The third is at present inherent in the subject of history and civics. If teachers persist in believing that they must "cover the ground," it is impossible for them to teach history (economic, social, military, political, diplomatic) until the ground is defined for them. It is true that the College Board papers, like all other examination papers now, with few exceptions, expect that the candidates answer only a few of the question set and that the alternatives thus allowed are for the purpose not of making the paper easy, but for the purpose of permitting the pupils of those teachers who teach a few things well rather than many things superficially to find subjects which they have studied. It is no serious charge against the inexperienced teacher who is anxious to save his charges from failure to say that he is too much concerned about teaching everything in the text-book. For such teachers the various associations of historical students in America are now making an effort to select from the field of history, as has been selected from the field of physics and other subjects, a list of problems or topics which shall be considered sufficient for a course covering one year.

With the causes of failure still largely undisturbed, and with the universities and colleges which should lead us out of our difficulties still largely indifferent to their duty, one is not surprised to find in the report of the Secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board for 1915 that even a smaller number than usual of the candidates received as much as the pass mark of 60 per cent.<sup>2</sup> Only 27.9 per cent. of all the candidates and only 33.5 per cent. of the

<sup>1</sup> Miss H. P. Marsh, Mr. C. E. Minor and Prof. D. S. Muzzey and C. W. Spencer collected part of the information used in writing this paper.

<sup>2</sup> In answering this 1915 paper the candidate needed to select only about five-thirteenths (5/13) of the questions set.



recommended candidates received as high a mark as this, which is a smaller proportion than in either 1914 or 1913. In other words, about one-third of the candidates pass. Of the remaining two-thirds, about half were marked below thirty-five, which means that these candidates had no notion whatever of what they were about. Doubtless a considerable proportion of the failures in history are due to boys with an elementary school course in the subject behind them thinking they may possibly slip through on a fluke. The remaining third of all the candidates, however, those who receive marks between 35 and 60, deserve careful consideration. It is to these and their teachers that attention is now to be directed. It may be helpful to them to know the sort of answers the Board's readers expect to receive and actually do get. The answers which will constitute a large part of this paper have received each of them a grade as high as nine, and most of them a grade of ten—"a perfect mark." Of course this does not mean that any reader thinks the answer is a perfect answer. He thinks it as good an answer as can reasonably be expected from a secondary schoolboy in the present state of our educational evolution. Some readers would have given nine and some ten to each of these answers, probably; and the difference is not important. Either mark signifies that the answer would be marked "A," and that a paper composed of such answers would receive a very high mark. Doubtless some readers give ten times as many of the highest marks as do other readers, but the former give more severely low marks than the latter, thus averaging up for a paper as a whole.

It may be charged that these answers in some cases show that the readers read for facts rather than for power, and the charge will be a just one. It has never been claimed that the College Board's papers in history are perfect papers. They call in too many cases for facts alone, and the readers read in too many cases for facts, mere facts. But the papers must require and the answers must be read with a view to what the present schools can give. The College Board is not an organ of reform, pure and simple; it is partly an organ for testing the results of our educational system as it is. The difference between a good examination paper and a bad one cannot and need not be discussed here. The reader is referred to Professor Henry Johnson's recent book, "Teaching of History," Chapter XVI, where is presented an ample discussion of this subject. It is humiliating to find him (p. 478) asking us to "compare historical instruction in the United States before 1915 with historical instruction in Europe before the seventeenth century;" but if we objected he would doubtless say that it hurts him more than it does us, and that he does it for our good. All that is claimed for the question papers is that they are more carefully prepared than are any other set of history papers in America. All that is claimed for the reading is that an earnest effort is made to select from among all the candidates those who show some reasonably serious work under reasonably serious and trained direction.

Many slips could be pointed out in this and past papers, but to do so would be an unprofitable task. Our present purpose is to indicate the general level of work expected by this system of examinations.

The questions follow, and after each question are placed two numbers. The first is the number of candidates out of a hundred, selected at random, who tried this question in preference to some other in the same group. The second is arrived at as follows: one hundred papers each with a grade of sixty or better were selected and the total grade of each question in those one hundred papers added together. The second number is the sum of credits given to each question in one hundred passing papers. The number is given to supply a sort of survey of the knowledge of fairly good candidates on each kind of question. The answers given are verbatim quotations as nearly correct as it has been possible to make them, considering the rapidity with which some of the candidates wrote and the consequent character of the handwriting.

#### HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

In each answer give dates. [Two hours.]

##### GROUP I.

(Answer one question only.)

1. What parts of America were discovered prior to 1521, in what years, by what explorers, and on behalf of what countries? 20—342.
2. Describe the situation in Massachusetts which led to the founding of Rhode Island. Tell the story of the founding of Connecticut Colony. 32—72.
3. Trace the succession of the events after 1763 which contributed most to the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. 40—284.

##### GROUP II.

(Answer one question only.)

4. Write fully on three of the following men: John Paul Jones, Carl Schurz, William H. Seward, John Adams, William McKinley. 3—12.
5. State four important problems which confronted the military and naval strategists of the United States during the Civil War. Briefly trace the operations found necessary in the solution of one of these problems. 7—88.
6. What is the Monroe Doctrine? Why is it so called? Of what importance is it to-day? 90—660.

##### GROUP III.

(Answer one question only.)

7. Indicate the position taken by the United States as to neutrality during the wars of the French Revolution (1792-1815), in the Civil War (1861-1865), and in the European War of 1914-1915. What was Great Britain's record on neutrality during the Civil War in the United States? 48—404.
8. Contrast the planter aristocracy and the poor white class in the South before the Civil War in respect to numbers, wealth, and influence. 46—272.
9. Sketch the relations of the United States with China and Japan. 6—64.

##### GROUP IV.

(Answer two parts only of Question 10.)

10. Mark on map 85b or 175b—  
(a) the places on the Mississippi, Tennessee, and Cumberland rivers which were fortified by the Confederates;

(b) such portions of the following parallels of latitude as were at some time parts of the boundary of the United States: 31° N.L., 42° N.L., 49° N.L., 54° 40' N.L. By what treaty was each accepted as a boundary?

(c) the route of Braddock's march, the Cumberland Road, the western boundary of Maryland, the Union Pacific Railroad, the settlements of the Mormons. 100—636.

## GROUP V.

(Of the following questions answer 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Explain what is meant by five of the following terms: the Star Route Frauds, Mugwumps, the Bland-Allison Act, Wilmot Proviso, Compulsory Arbitration, Copperheads. 99—656.

What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?

12. What was the jurisdiction of the United States Courts under the original constitution and how was it affected by the eleventh amendment. 8—60.

13. State the difference between a tariff tax and an income tax. Which in your judgment is better? Why? 92—620.

## ANSWERS.

1. Prior to 1521, Spain took the leading part in exploring America. England and Portugal were represented; France had not begun.<sup>3</sup>

YEAR	EXPLORER	IN NAME OF	PLACES
1000	Norsemen		Vineyard Islands.
1492	Columbus	Spain	West Indian Islands
1494	Columbus	Spain	Cuba
1495-8	Vespucci	Spain	Venezuela Coast
(Voyages are doubtful. No reliable record.)			
1497	John Cabot	England	Newfoundland
(Caused English claim to America.)			
1498-9	Columbus	Spain	Isthmus of Panama
(Went as Governor of Haiti (Hispaniola) and sent back in chains.)			
1500	Cabral	Portugal	Coast of Brazil
(Driven by storms while trying to reach the Cape of Good Hope. Being within 370 leagues of Canary Islands. Brazil was occupied by Portugal.)			
1498	Sebastian Cabot	England	Coast of N. A. and Carolina
(It is doubtful whether it was John or his son.)			
1502	Columbus	Spain	Orinoco R. and region
(Last voyage.)			

Numerous explorations of the Gulf Coast of North, Central and South America by Spanish vessels occurred between 1502-1520.

YEAR	EXPLORER	IN NAME OF	PLACES
1513 to			
1519	Ponce de Leon	Spain	Coast of Florida
(Seeking for the Fountain of Eternal Youth. He found death.)			
1513	Balboa		
(Crossed the Isthmus of Panama and took possession of all lands washed by the Pacific Ocean. He called it the South Sea. It was taken in the name of Spain.)			

<sup>3</sup> Without any reference to the wording of the questions, candidates volunteered the information that Magellan sailed round the globe and that Balboa discovered the Pacific.

## 1520 Magellan

(Begins on his wonderful voyage around the globe. Before the end of 1521 he had explored part of the South American Coast.)

Soon after Balboa's discovery numerous Spaniards had crossed over to the western coast of Central America.

## 1521 Cortez

(Begins his conquest of Mexico.)

Numerous fishing ships had come to the Newfoundland banks from England, Scandinavia and France.

2. The settlers of Massachusetts had come to America to seek a place where they might worship and think as they pleased. Just the same, they were not willing to give others the same privileges. This was the case with Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson. Roger Williams was a free-minded, liberal clergyman. He insisted that church and state be kept apart, that the magistrates of the colony had no right to exercise jurisdiction over religious matters, such as administering oaths, and that the king had no right to take away lands from the Indians without payment, and grant them to his followers. The people of Massachusetts would not stand for such ideas. Roger Williams was tried (1636) and ordered to leave this continent. He was permitted, however, to go South, and he settled Providence with his followers. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson made still a greater "furor" with her ideas. She caused the colony to be divided into two parts, one for her and the other against. She was tried (1637) and banished. She and her followers went to Rhode Island.

Other people in Massachusetts were dissatisfied with the fact that one had to be a member of the church to vote. They were also influenced by the fertility of the soil of Connecticut, and the chance that Holland might get too strong a hold on the region, since Holland by 1633, had established a settlement at Hartford. Accordingly, led by such men as Reverend Hooker, some of the Massachusetts Colonists went into Connecticut. (1636.) The people were outside of the territory under the control of the Council for New England. They, accordingly, drew up their own set of laws. This constitution (1639) is remarkable, for it is the first written constitution drawn up by the people themselves for their own government.

3.4 In 1763, the English Prime Minister decided to have an army in the colonies to protect them. When this act became a law the Sugar Act was passed, reducing the duty on molasses, etc., and employing all the ships of England to prevent smuggling. Then the Stamp Act and the Quartering Act were passed in 1765. New York resisted the Quartering Act and so had its legislature prorogued. People in the colonies refused to buy stamped paper. Stamp collectors were mobbed and stamps burned. In New York the representatives of the various colonies met in the Stamp Act Congress and protested.

In 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed, but the Declaratory Act was passed, declaring the supremacy of Parliament.

In 1767, the Townshend Acts were passed by Parliament. This provided for a tax on tea, painter's colors, lead, glass, paper; declared writs of assistance legal; provided for paying the Governors, Judges, etc., from the fund raised by tariff; provided for a commission to decide on all maritime questions; and forbade the New York Assembly to convene until it should comply with the Quartering Act.

Naturally there was great opposition to this also. In

<sup>4</sup> The long discussion of events prior to 1763 in answering this question illustrates the fact that the candidates do not read carefully. Why is this?

1768, the Massachusetts Legislature, under Sam. Adams, sent a letter to all the colonies who supported it. The legislatures were usually prorogued for refusing to withdraw their support.

In 1768 we have the Sloop Liberty affair. Then the withdrawal of the Townshend Act in 1770, except for the tax on tea. Then we have the quartering of troops in Boston in 1768, and the Boston Massacre, 1770.

In 1772, the Caspee affair, and the beginnings of the colonial committee of correspondence.

In 1773 there occurred the Boston Tea Party, and in 1774 the Five Repressive Acts. In 1774 the first Continental Congress. The Repressive Acts, provided for the closing of Boston Harbor; the changing of the gov't of Mass., making the Governor to be appointed by the King, and minor officers by the Governor; the transportation of murderers in the government employ for trial to England; the extension of the boundaries of Quebec to the Ohio River.

In 1775 came the 2nd Continental Congress. But the King had already declared his intention to suppress the rebellion in America, and had hired Hessians for that purpose.

4. John Adams was second president of the United States. His administration lasted from 1797-1801. Adams was a Federalist and believed in a stable government. On account of his pride and unusual refinement and good taste, the more democratic branded him as cold and lacking in sympathy. Although he was an aristocrat, yet he thought that only the cultured and erudite should be intrusted with the management of government. His administration is marked by two important events. First, the X, Y, Z affair and second the Alien and Sedition Acts. Adams sent Marshall, Pinckney and Gerry to France to settle differences with her. Bribes were demanded by Talleyrand, French Minister, and refused by our ambassadors. War was declared but Talleyrand retracted and promised to receive our ambassador. The affair was called the X, Y, Z trouble, because letters were supplied in place of the names of the French messengers who asked for bribes.

The Alien Act empowered the president to banish those foreigners whom he deemed dangerous to our welfare. The Sedition Act declared it a crime to write any scandalous literature with intent to defame Congress or President. These acts led to Virginia and Kentucky Resol. They (acts) were not enforced. Caused, in some measure, the downfall of Federalists.

William H. Seward was a Republican. In Congress, he fought against those who endeavored to rend the Union. When Lincoln was elected president (1860), Seward was chosen as his Secretary of State. At the time of the Civil War (1861-65), the French set up a monarchy in Mexico under Maximilian. The Mexicans were worsted and either fled the country or remained humbled. But after the conflict ended, Seward prepared to enforce the Monroe Doctrine and ordered the French to leave Mexico. The United States prepared to support her demands with the sword. The French evacuated Mexico.

William McKinley was President from (about) 1897-1901. Being a Republican he favored a Protective Tariff. Hence the Dingley Tariff was passed in his administration providing for higher duties. Hawaii was annexed in 1898, with the consent of her own people. The chief event, however, was the Spanish-American War of 1898, which ended in the acquisition of Porto Rico, Guam and the Philippine Islands. For the last named territory the United States paid Spain \$20,000,000. Cuba was made independent. The President was assassinated by an anarchist, and Theodore Roosevelt assumed the reins of government.

5.5 If the Union wished to defeat the confederacy, the following measures were necessary:

1. To obtain control of the Mississippi River.
2. To blockade all southern ports.
3. To capture Richmond.
4. To devastate the Shenandoah Valley, the storehouse of the confederacy.

1. If the Union wanted to capture the Mississippi Valley it must gain control of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers which were natural lines of defense for the Confederates. So in order to do this Grant set out from Cairo, and Paducah at the mouth of the Tennessee was taken by him. This kept the Confederates from gaining control of the mouths of these rivers and they had to fall back on their next line. Where the Tennessee and Cumberland approached very near each other they had built two forts, Henry and Donaldson. They were near enough to send reinforcements to each other but they soon were taken and a new line of defense was taken up. This was near the railroad joining Memphis with Chattanooga, and the sea, and Corinth, Mississippi, was the junction with this and the other north-going road. The Union army met the Confederates near Pittsburg Landing and Shiloh Church and after one of the bloodiest battles of the war the Northern forces won and thus opened the Mississippi, except between Memphis and New Orleans. Vicksburg and Port Hudson were the chief points intervening and the former being on a rise of ground overlooked all the bottom lands, so rich for the growth of staples of the South. When this fell, there wouldn't be much more use of the South fighting. After an awful siege Vicksburg fell and a few days later Port Hudson. As New Orleans had previously been captured by Farragut, the Mississippi was now entirely in control of the Union forces and this stopped the bringing of goods from foreign countries across the Rio Grande which had helped the South not a little. The leading officers in this campaign were Grant, Sherman, Buell and Farragut for the North, and Johnston, (J. E.) and A. S. Johnson and Bragg for the South.

6.6 The "Monroe Doctrine" was made by President Monroe in an address to Congress in connection with the Holy Alliance. After the defeat of Napoleon, some countries of Europe, France, Prussia, Russia and Austria, joined in an alliance which they called "The Holy Alliance." These countries agreed to work together in trying to dethrone the kings, which Napoleon had put on the thrones of the conquered countries and replace their rightful owners. We were asked to join in this agreement but we refused. Then Great Britain asked her [U. S.] to join with her in preventing this alliance, because she thought these countries were selfish in their object.

The United States refused this offer also, because the country felt that it did not want to follow in England's train any longer. So President Monroe declared that the United States would join in no foreign alliance and that she would be the prime protector of all the countries on this hemisphere. He said that this country would not

<sup>5</sup> Others in answering this question gave the "Anaconda policy," ravages of the Shenandoah Valley, the protection of Washington, etc., each being given some credit depending on the fullness of discussion and the accuracy of detailed facts.

<sup>6</sup> Many of the candidates seemed as unclear what the Monroe Doctrine is as are some university professors who deal with this, to them, "outworn" dogma. Among the Cubist answers was that by this doctrine "the United States assumed the responsibility of fathering the affairs of South America."



view with indifference the attempt of any nation to take any country on this hemisphere and that hereafter there was to be no colonization by foreign powers on this continent. The President declared that the United States, as she was the supreme power on this continent, felt it her duty to defend and protect the other countries on her continent.

Since Monroe, as President delivered this declaration, it was called after him, the Monroe Doctrine, and it has been rigidly adhered to ever since, and the United States from 1823, has made no "entangling alliances" because of it.

It is very important in the present crisis,<sup>7</sup> because when war was first declared, on August 14, 1914, this doctrine compelled President Wilson to issue a proclamation of neutrality, which declared that this country would be entirely neutral, and that she would protect the other countries on this continent from any encroachments made by the warring nations.

This doctrine served as an excuse for the United States not taking sides in the war, and itself declaring war. It has also since the declaration of war last year kept the country neutral in several smaller crises, whereas without this precedent of neutrality, the country might easily have been hurried into war on one side or the other.

7.<sup>8</sup> Washington was President of the United States from 1789-1797. During this time it was seen that he was a firm believer in peace.

In 1778, France had signed a treaty with the rebellious colonies of America to aid them get their independence from England. Now France called on the U. S. to help her, but Washington saw that we were in no condition to go to war, so broke the treaty under the plea that it had only been signed with the understanding that we would help France in the West Indies if she were attacked.

Genet was sent over by France and landed at Charleston, immediately starting to outfit some merchantmen. He was banquetted and feted a great deal by the American people, but the President saw the danger of entering the war and maintained a strict neutrality, not allowing the privateer-men to be outfitted. In Washington's farewell address he made the statement that the U. S. should keep free from "entangling foreign alliances" and to keep a strict neutrality whenever possible.

In 1806, Napoleon issued the orders that all Prussian ports were blockaded to English vessels. In 1806, he also issued his Berlin decree which said that the British Isles were in a state of blockade and that all ports Europe under his control were blockaded to English vessels.

In 1807, he issued his Milan decree that said that any neutral ship which had entered an English port or permitted being searched by the English should be subject to seizure. These were known as Napoleon's "Continental System."

England in retaliation issued the "orders in council," declaring that she held blockaded all ports of Europe from Brest-Elbe, a distance of 700 miles. She then enforced the rule of 1756, which states that no neutral ship in time of war might benefit from trade which she was forbidden in time of peace.

All of these hurt the American Maritime Trade and in 1807, Jefferson issued his Embargo Act, which was followed by the non-intercourse act. France then issued the Rambouillet Act and England the Macon Bill No. 2.

<sup>7</sup> Under "to-day" in this part of the question credit was given for facts as early as 1895.

<sup>8</sup> The word "neutral" seems to have the meaning of peaceful to many candidates. Several said that the North tried to be "neutral" toward the South in the Civil War.

Finally, in 1812, we went to war with England over the question of imprisonment of American seamen and the right of search.

In the present war we as neutrals are having trouble with both England and Germany. The latter is at present the more serious, although at the end of the war England will receive claims from the U. S. for large damages. At present, the Germans have claimed a blockade of the British Isles and refuse to allow neutral ships to enter their "war zone." We claim that we, as a neutral, have a right to trade with England, as long as we do not bring in "contraband of war." Contraband of war is a large question which ought not to be discussed here. Germany is not respecting the rights of neutral ships as, indeed, England also. For example, England a short time ago, confiscated a whole cargo of cotton on an American vessel, because it was thought that arms and ammunition, copper, etc., were hidden inside the cotton. President Wilson has already sent two notes to Germany, demanding that the rights of neutrals be respected. By Bryan's resignation there has been a split in the Cabinet, due to this same—"Rights of a Neutral."

During the Civil War, England did not recognize the Southern States as independent and, therefore, had no right to interfere. She, however, allowed three ships to be fitted out in England by the Rebels and to prey upon the Federal merchant fleet. The names of two of these ships were the Alabama and Shenandoah. After the Civil War the U. S. laid claims to England to many millions of dollars damages caused by these vessels. These claims were all lumped under the title "Alabama Claims."

In the Treaty of Washington it was agreed that the whole matter should be settled by arbitration. The Committee was to be composed of five men; one from U. S., one from England, one from Switzerland, one from Spain, and one from Germany. It was to meet at Geneva, Switzerland. The decision was reached and was accepted by both the U. S. and England, that England should pay the U. S. \$15,500,000 damages. This was known as the Geneva Award, and was the first great instance of arbitration. It was hoped that it would be the beginning of arbitration to take the place of war, but it has since proved otherwise.

Thus Great Britain broke her laws of neutrality in the Civil War.

8.<sup>9</sup> In a word, the planter aristocracy compared with the poor white class in the South before the Civil War, the former were fewer in number, greater in wealth and greater in influence.

The "planter aristocracy" was the outgrowth of the cavalier faction of the early colonies. Originally these were fewer in number, which, perhaps, helps to account for their later comparative fewness.

These planters were, as a rule, used to luxury and good breeding and manners. There was no work which could cause a man to occupy the same position in the social world as a planter. They were, as a rule, rather idle—almost lazy. Their work was to look after their plantations, and, consequently, they ordered their slaves about, and rarely got into the real work themselves. They might

<sup>9</sup> Among the original answers to this question was the statement that the poor whites "lived in bunches and multiplied rapidly." This is not a good question. After the candidate has given what the question itself suggests to the wide-awake boy, the facts he can give from the ordinary text-book are but scant. He would know that the poor whites had no wealth or influence, and doubtless might suppose they were numerous.

also be compared to that unfortunate class of the community of the present day—the millionaire's idle son. However, as to wealth, they had plenty, but no such fabulous sums as our present-day moneyed-men. I doubt if there was one who possessed a million dollars. Well, there may have been a very few, but none such as Rockefeller, Carnegie, Morgan and Vanderbilt. Their wealth was such that almost all the planter's sons were tutored. There was but a small education for the boys, and almost none for the girls. Although they were rich enough to support them, public schools were among the missing. Education was just the opposite of that in New England.

As to the poor whites, as has been said, they were much greater in numbers, but the lack of education was what kept them down. They never learned to know their own power. Their morals were lax. From them sprung up the gangs which used to make "night raids," and which even nowadays, once in a while startle the government with some new crime.

As to wealth, they have nothing; their homes, now mostly in the mountains, are the poorest kind of shacks. Owing to their lack of education their influence, in spite of their numbers, was small. Their poverty also held them back. These "poor whites" were just about on the same level as the slave—sometimes they even fell lower.

So it was, that as a class the planter aristocracy was greater than the poor whites in all but numbers. And it is a good present-day lesson to realize that, of all factors, lack of education was perhaps the largest in keeping the poor whites down. To-day their condition is much improved.

9. In 1854, U. S. sent Burlingame to make a treaty of commerce with China. This was caused by the growing trade of the U. S. with China, because of the acquisition of the California region. China received our Minister very well and a treaty was drawn up. Moreover, China sent Burlingame and some of her chief men to all the nations of the world as an Embassy to draw up treaties of peace. This and the discovery of gold in California brought over many Chinese. Because of their lower standard of living they competed with the U. S. laborers. The working classes began to demand the restriction of Chinese immigration, about 1875. So great was this cry that in 1888, a law was enacted prohibiting all Chinese except students, statesmen, etc., from coming to this country. This went out of effect in 1898, but was re-enacted without a limit on time. This, of course, has caused considerable trouble, but no change has yet occurred. In 1900, the U. S. took an active part in quelling the Boxer uprising. U. S. troops from the Philippines and California were sent as quickly as possible. China paid a large indemnity. U. S. settled all the claims of Americans and returned the surplus, on condition that China spend it for educational purposes. This has been done. The immigration of Chinese and Japanese into the U. S. insular possessions has caused much trouble. Many people believe that some day the yellow races will overrun the world. This is called "The Yellow Peril."

In 1854, Commodore Perry visited Japan in a battleship to make a commercial treaty. He was well received and commerce between Japan and the white races was reopened after having been stopped for over 150 years. Commerce between U. S. and Japan increased regularly. The immigration of Japanese was objectionable for the same reason as that of Chinese. Trouble arose in California over letting Japanese attend schools (1900). War was imminent, but the matter was compromised. Japan should not allow working men to go to America, while Japanese in America should be allowed to go to school, own land, etc.

In 1912, California passed a law prohibiting Japanese to own land. This would have caused trouble had not the Federal Government advised and California followed the advice, that the law be repealed.

In 1907, President Roosevelt offered his services in settling the Russo-Japanese War. He managed to stop the war and received the Nobel Peace Prize for his pains.

The U. S. fears Japan much more than China, because the former is very much more wide-awake than the latter. The Chinese stick to their old ideas, while the Japanese take up all new things. The numerous Japanese in the Philippines and Hawaii bring forth serious problems in those islands.

10. The geography questions seem to have been a little more difficult this year than heretofore. Information in this field has been gradually becoming more satisfactory, but selected papers averaged only 64, even though the candidate was permitted to omit one of the three parts of the question. Some answers, however, were almost surprisingly good, particularly when the better teachers have some right to suppose that the day of military questions is drawing to its close. It is surely questionable whether the most important things a boy can know about the geography of his country includes the location of places fortified during the Civil War. Yet many of them correctly located Forts Donelson and Henry, Vicksburg, Cairo, Island number 10, Port Hudson and New Orleans. The location of seven places was considered a perfect answer.

To section (b) of this question the following answer was found in a paper graded 84. Parallel 31 was the southern boundary of the United States by a secret clause in the treaty of 1783. It was accepted as the boundary with Spain in the treaty of 1795. Parallel 42 was accepted in the treaty of 1819, when Spain gave up all her rights north of this parallel. In 1818 we made a treaty with England fixing our northern boundary to the Rockies at parallel 49, agreeing to occupy the region beyond the Rockies jointly. In 1846 another treaty extended this boundary to the Pacific. In 1825 Russia surrendered all her claims south of 54-40. These facts were all clearly indicated on the maps, a special mark being placed at the Rockies on parallel 49.

While no statistics were kept, possibly fewer tried the third section of this question. It is remarkable that quite a number missed the western boundary of Maryland although they had before them a map with the outlines of the states upon it. Very few located Braddock's march, the Cumberland Road and the Union Pacific correctly.

11.<sup>10</sup> MUGWUMPS<sup>11</sup>—The name given by the New York "Sun" to those Republicans who opposed their party's choice of Blaine as Presidential candidate in 1884. The Mugwumps supported Cleveland—a Democrat.

BLAND-ALLISON ACT (1878)—This Act provided that the

<sup>10</sup> One boy says: "These topics have been carefully omitted from our lectures." Discussion of the star-route frauds indicates a vicious tendency in much civics teaching. Charges of graft and fraud are made in cases when neither teacher nor the pupil could give evidence which a court would recognize that either exists. Frauds such as this may profitably be discussed, but no pupil should be permitted to cite men as dishonest in public life unless he can give facts to support their charges.

<sup>11</sup> An Indian name for a person sitting on a fence. A crooked politician who cheated the poor Indian right and left. By Indian does he mean Tammany? Mugwump and Copperheads, members of "certain political parties" says the bluffer.

Government should purchase at least \$24,000,000 worth of silver per annum and coin it.

**WILMOT PROVISIO**—This was a resolution introduced in Congress in 1848, on the very day that an appropriation was being voted for peace negotiations with Mexico. It stated that slavery should be prohibited in any territory ceded to the U. S. by Mexico.

**COMPULSORY ARBITRATION**—Compulsory arbitration is involuntary arbitration between employers and employees. When employers and their employees have grievances to settle it is proposed that they be forced by a state or national law to arbitrate their differences.

**COPPERHEADS**<sup>12</sup>—A contemptuous name given the Northerners who in the period, 1861-65, objected to the North seeking to defeat the South. They were mostly Northern Democrats.

1. In connection with the Civil War period, I read Coffin's "Following the Flag;" a detailed account of the campaign in Virginia from 1861-62.

2. In connection with Reconstruction, I read Burgess' "Reconstruction and the Constitution."<sup>13</sup>

3. In connection with Imperialism, the Trust question and the Labor question, I read selections from Beards' "Contemporary American History."

4. In connection with the period 1789-1815, I read selections from Hart's "Source Book of American History."

5. In connection with the period 1860-1900, I read selections from Hart's "History Told by Contemporaries."

6. In connection with the topic "Territorial Growth," I read Johnson's "Century Expansion."

12. While this question was attempted by but few papers, a small number of candidates did it very well. In a paper which was graded 72 the following answer was found: Under the original constitution the jurisdiction of the supreme court was as follows: 1. Trials between citizens of a foreign country and of the United States; 2. Trials between citizens of a foreign state and of a state; 3. Trials between citizens of different states; 4. Trials between citizens of one state and the government of another state; 5. Trials involving a national law or the constitution or treaties of the United States; 6. Trials involving the constitutionality of any law, state or national; 7. Trials affecting ambassadors or envoys of a foreign country. By the 11th amendment the constitution was so amended that a state might not be called to defend itself as mentioned in 2 and 4. Instead each state has a court of claims, and the United States has one as well, in which claims against it are tried, but this latter is not in the constitution.

This candidate omits to mention *Chisholm vs. Georgia*, which was given by many of the other candidates who handled this question well, but submitted as a very good one for a high school boy.

13.<sup>14</sup> The principal difference between a tariff and an income tax is that the tariff is an indirect tax and the income is a direct tax. Now the best form of tax is that which is in proportion to the payer's ability to pay, is lit-

tle felt, and is easily collected. The income tax is so graduated as it is now in operation that it is at least intended to be in proportion to the payer's ability to do so. And on the other hand, a tariff tax is paid by those who buy the goods and who therefore demonstrate their ability to pay a tax by the very act of buying goods. In respect to the collection, the tariff has indeed been somewhat avoided but to such a small extent that this avoidance is almost negligible; the income tax, however, is a difficult one to collect and is liable to prove more and more troublesome as people become accustomed to juggling accounts of their income. In answer to the demand that a good tax must be little felt, the income tax defenders have little to say. True it is designed to be paid by that class of society which can most easily afford to pay taxes. But it has the disadvantage of being a direct tax which is always thought by the tax paying public to be more severe than an indirect tax. For instance, a man does not stop to think when he buys a toy for a baby that the toy was imported from Germany and that he is paying a tax to the United States Government when he pays for the toy; but when a tax collector walks into this same man's office, demands access to the books, and asks for a check in proportion to the man's income, Mr. Man feels the tax, is angrily aware of the tax for several weeks probably, and he sits up and takes notice. It is my opinion, therefore, that the tariff tax, since it, as well as the income tax, is in proportion to the payer's ability to pay, and in addition is easier to collect and less felt by the tax payers, is far preferable to the income tax.

#### FOREIGN HISTORY TEACHERS' JOURNALS.

There has been received a copy of Volume 4, Number 4, of the English history teachers' magazine entitled, "History," dated October-December, 1915. The editor, Mr. Harold F. B. Wheeler, prints in the opening pages a "Chapter in Autobiography," in which he recounts the life and work of the paper since its inauguration in 1911. Referring to the fact that Germany in 1911 had about two hundred regular periodical publications exclusively devoted to historical research, he states that his purpose was to create a magazine which should represent the history workers of England, and particularly further and co-ordinate the excellent work of the [English] Historical Association. The editor had received many expressions of appreciation of his work and practical help from many. Despite this, however, the journal is now suffering from a lack of support, and unless its subscription list can be doubled in the near future it will be unable to continue.

The editors of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE trust that their sister journal will not be forced to discontinue publication. While "History" has given more attention to historic data and less to real methods of teaching history than has been the policy of the MAGAZINE, yet the English journal has served an excellent work in its field, and it has been welcomed in America by a number of those interested in the problems of teaching history.

The German periodical, "Vergangenheit und Gegenwart," comes regularly, and apparently has suffered no diminution in content or support. The recent numbers have shown more interest in current history, giving much space to bibliographies of the war, but there have also been papers of a scientific nature and articles dealing with means for improving the teaching of history in Germany.

enough in its place, but it is of no value to the country," without telling what is. Many confused tariff and internal revenue. One said an income tax is a tax on imports. Another, after defending the income tax, said: "But I am not a socialist."

<sup>12</sup> The fine finish of the futurist is to be found in the following: "Copperheads were called Copperheads on account of their saying something relative to copper when asked anything, or because they also dealt only in the methods of coppers, with their copper heads and tails. They were unsuccessful."

<sup>13</sup> In far too many cases only text-books were given as examples of outside reading.

<sup>14</sup> It is astonishing that many fairly intelligent candidates did not know what the word tariff means. I do not refer to the bluffer who says, "An income tax may be well



# College Board's Questions in History, 1915

By permission of the secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, the *MAGAZINE* is enabled to print, as in previous years, the papers in history set for the examination in June, 1915.—EDITOR.

## ANCIENT HISTORY.

### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following men: Solon, Miltiades, Demosthenes, Seleucus.
2. Tell the story of what happened in Greece in the first ten years after the Persian Wars.
3. How did Alexander the Great plan to govern his empire?

### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Scipio Africanus the Elder, Jugurtha, Cleopatra, Septimius Severus.
5. Trace the relations between Pompey and the Senate from the time of Sulla to the battle of Pharsalus.
6. Indicate the relative strength and weakness of Rome and Carthage at the opening of the Second Punic War.

### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. Compare a Persian satrapy with a Roman province.
8. Sketch the history of Syracuse from the defeat of the Athenian expedition of 415 B. C. to the capture of the city by the Romans.
9. Describe the part played by the Gauls in Greek and Roman history.

### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of Question 10.)

10. Mark on map 131b or 113b
  - (a) the movements of Cæsar from the time he crossed the Rubicon to the battle of Pharsalus;
  - (b) the principal mountains, towns, rivers, and political divisions of the Peloponnesus;
  - (c) four of the following places: Memphis, Issus, Sentinum, Ravenna, Châlons.

### GROUP V. (Of the following questions answer 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: the Hebrew Prophets, Cretan Civilization, the Sculptures of the Parthenon, the Twelve Tables, Roman Innovations in Architecture, Vandalism, the Nicene Creed. What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. In what respects did an ancient Greek city differ from an ordinary city in modern America?
13. What helped and what hindered the spread of Christianity in the Roman Empire before Constantine?

## MEDIEVAL AND MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any three of the following persons: Gregory VII, Louis XI, Gustavus Adolphus, Maria Theresa, Bismarck.
2. Tell the story of the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem.
3. What are the fundamental beliefs of Mohammedanism? Sketch its progress during the first century after the death of its founder. In what countries are Mohammedans numerous at the present time?

### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Show how the desire of Russia to reach the sea has influenced her territorial expansion.
5. Explain the foundation of the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. What has been the effect of this grouping of the powers upon European politics during the last ten years?
6. Tell the story of Napoleon's Egyptian expedition.

### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. Describe briefly the art of war in the 13th, 17th and 20th centuries, noting characteristic differences.
8. Outline the history of the Netherlands from the time of Charles V to the present day. How and when did Holland secure her possessions in the East Indies? What territory has Belgium outside of Europe?
9. Give an account of the origin of the Dominicans and Franciscans. To what problems did each order particularly devote itself?

### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of Question 10.)

10. Mark on map 81b or 112b
  - (a) the chief colonial possessions of France and Germany at the outbreak of the European war of 1914-15;
  - (b) five of the following places: Rheims, Liège, Metz, Belgrade, Cracow, Kiel;
  - (c) the principal cities and countries connected with the Hanseatic League.

### GROUP V. (Of the following questions answer 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: Rheims Cathedral, Iconoclastic Controversy, Universal Disarmament, German Music, Erasmus, the Medici, Truce of God. What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your text-book on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. What do you know about the following four painters: Giotto, Raphael, Rembrandt, Velasquez?
13. Discuss fully the effects of the discovery of America on the economic life of Europe.

## ENGLISH HISTORY.

### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any three of the following persons: the Black Prince, Warwick the King-maker, John Churchill Duke of Marlborough, Edmund Burke, Queen Victoria.
2. What did William the Conqueror accomplish for England? In what respects, if in any, were the results of his rule harmful to England?
3. What was the attitude of England toward the Pope during the reign of Edward III? In what ways was it manifested?

### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Mention the various pretenders to the British throne. Describe the claims of two of them.
5. Show by examples the importance of sea power in England's struggle with Napoleon.
6. Describe the events of the ministry of Peel (1841-1846).

## GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. At what times and in what way was England's history affected by her relations with Scotland during the Tudor and Stuart periods?
8. Contrast the power of the king in 1660 with what it was in 1625.
9. Explain the origin and working of Cabinet Government.

## GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of Question 10.)

10. Mark on map 81b or 82b
  - (a) four of the following places: Hong Kong, Gibraltar, Suez Canal, Bombay, Cyprus, Jamaica;
  - (b) the parts of England which supported the king at the outbreak of the Civil War, locating two battles which were fought in the course of the struggle;
  - (c) five battle fields on the continent of Europe on which English armies have fought.

## GROUP V. (Of the following questions answer 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: the Early Irish Church, Livery and Maintenance, Oxford Reformers, Privy Council, the Preraphaelites, South Sea Bubble, Canterbury.  
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. Show the part played by joint stock companies in the expansion of England.
13. Discuss the relative importance of agriculture and manufacturing in 1750 and in 1900 and explain how the change has come about.

## AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

See page 318 for the paper upon this subject.

## Minimum of Supplementary Reading for Eighth Grade

BY RAYMOND G. PATTERSON, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

However strictly teachers of history in the past may have insisted upon close adherence to the textbook in elementary and high schools, recent investigation indicates that practically all now recognize the necessity for considerable supplementary reading.<sup>1</sup> But just what reading shall be required and the precise amount constitute an unsettled problem.

Reporting for high schools, the Committee of Seven says, "... very few schools actually require as many as three hundred pages of collateral reading in connection with a course of five hours per week for a year, and three-fourths of these schools have no specified requirements."<sup>2</sup> No definite system of collateral reading for secondary schools has yet been formulated. The nearest approach that has been made is a bibliography of rather general topical references, such as are listed in practically all of the syllabi and text-books on the subject. The reasons for this vagueness are easily seen. They are due partly to the lack of trained specialists in history, but chiefly to the vastness of the problem of reading all the available sources, estimating their relative importance and arranging them in a form convenient for pupils to use. As one writer has aptly said: "If the problem was a serious one in the period of long school sessions, when the daily program was mainly limited to the 'three R's' . . . , it has not been made easier of solution by the modern transformation in educational methods and ideals."<sup>3</sup>

Though fully aware of the difficulty of adequately handling the problem, this paper will undertake to estimate a minimum of reference reading which may reasonably be required of pupils in the eighth grade, within the time limit proposed by the Committee of

Eight.<sup>4</sup> For the eighth grade the committee presents a time-table of studies in minutes per week as follows:

Reading .....	150
Arithmetic .....	280
Algebra .....	..
Grammar .....	150
Composition and Language .....	100
Geography .....	150
History .....	150
Spelling .....	100
Writing .....	60
Drawing .....	60
Music .....	60
Nature Study .....	30

1,290

Dividing this total by five, we find that the above schedule provides an average per day of 258 minutes, or 4 hours 18 minutes, for all subjects. Counting the school day as running from 9 o'clock a. m. to 4 p. m., with the usual intermissions amounting to 1½ hours, we find that the school session for one day comprises 330 minutes, or 5½ hours. On this basis the pupil would be free from class recitation 72 minutes (330-258), or 1 1/5 hours a day. But the schedule shows a liberality in the time allowance per subject which, it would seem, would be sufficient in most instances to cover both the preparation and the recital of the lesson. This would probably be true of reading, spelling, writing, drawing, music and nature study. Since "the old-time doctrine that home preparation is an essential feature of each recitation" has given place to the modern view that "many a recitation period is better spent in the development of a subject periods, or in its study, than in its repro-

<sup>1</sup> Report of the Committee of Eight, p. 125.

<sup>2</sup> Report of the Committee of Seven, p. 145.

<sup>3</sup> Teachers' College Record, Columbia University, Vol. 8, p. 242.

<sup>4</sup> Report, p. 126.

duction,"<sup>5</sup> it would seem fair to assume that the time thus utilized, together with the 72 free minutes, would be sufficient for the complete preparation within school hours of all subjects except mathematics and history; and since 280 minutes per week, or 56 minutes per day, is allotted to arithmetic, it would appear that the major part of the preparation in this subject could be accomplished during school hours. This would leave arithmetic and history as the only subjects for home study. These subjects are designated for home study because they perhaps lend themselves as advantageously as any to such study. But so far as the quantity of time is concerned, it makes no difference what subjects are chosen, or whether the collateral reading is done in or out of school hours. The point is to see that some work of this kind is done. The popular tendency to kill all work outside of school hours has run to the extreme in some communities. The correct principle is expressed by one of the teachers of the Horace Mann School, who says that while they are "not blind to the fact that a large proportion of the children have outside lessons in music," etc., and "all of them need ample time for play and for performing their part in the home life of the family," yet they regard a certain amount of study at home as an "indispensable adjunct to the work of the classroom."<sup>6</sup> To put this idea into practical effect the Horace Mann School expects children of the fourth year to spend from one-half to three-quarters of an hour in study at home; in the fifth grade from three-quarters of an hour to an hour and a half, and in the seventh from an hour and a half to two hours.<sup>7</sup> All this is required despite the fact that there are from two to four study hours on the weekly program of the upper grades.<sup>8</sup>

If such a requirement has proved its worth in the Horace Mann School, it certainly would not appear unreasonable or out of harmony with the recommendation of the Committee of Eight to require from one to one and a half hours of home study as a minimum, where school sessions are of equal length. If, then, this time be divided between the two subjects, history and arithmetic, it would seem reasonable to require *twenty minutes* of collateral reading daily as a minimum in the former subject. On this basis it is interesting to seek just what might be accomplished in reference reading in the eighth grade. From a rather superficial investigation, it appears that an eighth-grade pupil should be allowed about three minutes on the average to read an ordinary page properly. In his twenty minutes he could thus read six pages; in a week, thirty pages; in a month, one hundred twenty pages; in a school year of nine months he would read a minimum of ten hundred eighty pages.

What material should comprise these ten hundred eighty pages? A comparison of lists recommended

for supplementary study and reading in the eighth grade by divers syllabi and text-books, covering the first month's work, should enable one to form an approximate estimate. To submit a specific list and recommend it authoritatively as preferable to any other would require a careful study and comparison of all the several lists, and a wise selection therefrom of the material best adapted to vivify particular topics, a task too great to be accomplished without abundant time for investigation.

The lists here appended for comparison are those recommended in (1) The Report of the Committee of Eight,<sup>9</sup> (2) The Wisconsin Manual for Elementary Schools,<sup>10</sup> (3) McMurry's Special Method in History,<sup>11</sup> (4) Mace's Grammar School History,<sup>12</sup> (5) The New York State Educational Department Syllabus for Elementary Schools.<sup>13</sup> For the most part these books submit general bibliographies rather than specific references; none gives careful page references except Mace's United States History.

Because of insufficient explanation of the "unit values," it is difficult to tell just how much work the Committee of Eight intended should be covered each month. It appears, however, that the supplementary reading for the first month falls under two heads, as follows:

#### TEACHERS' LIST.

Fiske: Critical Period, Ch. III-VI.

Hill: Liberty Documents, p. 17.

Schouler: History of the United States, Vol. I, Ch. I, Secs. 2-3; Ch. II, Secs. 1-2; Ch. III, Sec. 2; Ch. IV, Sec. 1.

McMaster: History of the People of the United States, Vol. I, Ch. I.

Adams, Henry. History of the United States, Vol. I, Ch. XII; Vol. II, Ch. 2; Vol. V, Ch. 7-8.

Sparks: The Men Who Made the Nation, Ch. 4, 5, 7.

Lodge: Alexander Hamilton, Ch. IV.

Gay: James Madison, VII-IX.

Morse: Thomas Jefferson, Ch. XV-XVI.

Lowell, Taine, et al, on the French Revolution

#### CHILDREN'S LIST.

Irving: Washington, 576 pp.

Stone and Fickett: Days and Deeds, 16-53.

Lighton: Lewis and Clark, 159 pp.

Hitchcock: Purchase of Louisiana, 338 pp.

The syllabus of the New York State Educational Department classifies the children's list for this month as follows:<sup>14</sup>

#### HISTORY:

Hart: Source Book, pp. 175-178; 181-186; 268-281.

Hart: Formation of the Union.

<sup>5</sup> Teachers' College Record, Curriculum, 1907, Vol. 8, p. 243.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid., 242.

<sup>7-8</sup> Ibid., 242, 248.

<sup>9</sup> Report, pp. 72-76.

<sup>10</sup> Manual, pp. 229-300.

<sup>11</sup> Method, pp. 286-288.

<sup>12</sup> School History, Appendix, 33-36.

<sup>13</sup> Bulletin, No. 471, pp. 187-188.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid., 186-188.



Hart and Chapman: *How Our Grandfathers Lived*.  
 Alton: *Among the Law Makers*.  
 Strong: *Expansion*.  
 Roosevelt and Lodge: *Hero Tales from American History*.  
 Sparks: *Expansion*.

## BIOGRAPHY:

Sparks: *Men Who Made the Nation*.  
 Burton: *Four American Patriots*.

## FICTION:

Johnston: *Lewis Rand*.  
 Churchill: *The Crossing*.  
 Eggleston: *Hoosier Schoolmaster*.

## POETRY:

(None assigned.)

McMurry includes about half of the above list in his recommendations and specifies in addition several other volumes, chief among which are: *Elson, Side Lights*; *Conant, Hamilton*; *Hart, Contemporaries*; *McCoun, Historical Geography*; *Judson, Growth of the American Nation*; *Wright, Children's Stories*; and *Old South Leaflets*.<sup>15</sup>

The Wisconsin Manual gives these books:<sup>16</sup>

Guerber: *Story of the Great Republic*.  
 Elson: *Side Lights*.  
 Scudder: *Washington*.  
 Wright: *Children's Stories*.  
 Hart and Chapman: *How Our Grandfathers Lived*.  
 Stone and Fickett: *Days and Deeds*.  
 Perry: *Four American Inventors*.  
 Mowry: *American Inventions and Inventors*; *Pioneers*.

Mace, *School History*, gives these references:<sup>17</sup>

## HISTORIES:

Fiske: *The Critical Period*, pp. 145-147; 216-217; 222-306; 309-315.  
 Hart: *Formation of the Union*, 104-106; 117-119; 121-133; 138-170.  
 American Statesmen Series:  
   Hamilton, 68-78.  
   Henry, 266-300.  
   Washington, 11, 42-46.  
   Madison, 88-127.  
   Samuel Adams, 389-401.  
   Jefferson, 210-212.  
   Clay, 77-87.  
 Elson: *Side Lights*, I, 24-79.  
 Walker: *Making of the Nation*, 64-72; 78-100; 114-123; 136-168.  
 McMaster: II, 1-25; 28-55; 135-142.  
 Washington and His Country, 500-506.

## SOURCES:

Hart: *Source Book*, 166-168; 181-183; 226-231.

Hart: *Contemporaries*, III, 31-39; 66-71; 331-333; 367-372; 389-390.

Hart: *Source Reader*, No. 3, 45-96. Read Nos. 15-19; 21, 22, 24, 27, 30-33, 57, 60, 62.

Mace: *Working Manual*, 233-274.

## FICTION AND POETRY:

Hale: *Man Without a Country*.

Sewall: *Little Jarvis*.

Eggleston: *Captain Sam*.

Holmes: *Old Ironsides*.

Inasmuch as the Mace references give the only definite page assignments, they furnish the most tangible basis for calculation. For the first month's work the number of pages recommended for collateral reading are: for histories, 375 pages; sources, 90 pages, a total of 465 pages, without touching fiction and poetry at all. This is nearly four times our minimum allowance of 120 pages per month. But, of course, no one pupil is expected to read all of these references. The list is comprehensive to provide for teachers as well as pupils, and to give small schools which have but few books in their libraries a chance. Eliminating the duplicate references and those intended for teachers, the Mace assignment would very likely be reduced by half. The reading for pupils, however, would still be nearer a maximum than the minimum we have set. The Mace references seem excellently chosen, but a classification into separate lists of the readings suitable for teacher and pupil, with some direction as to an ideal daily requirement for pupils, ought to prove even more helpful to most teachers.

The recommendation made by the Committee of Eight to cover the work of this month requires, in Irving's *Washington*, about 50 pages; in *Stone and Fickett*, 37 pages; *Hitchcock*, 338 pages; *Lighton's Lewis and Clark*, 159 pages. This requirement totals about 600 pages, nearly one-third more than that recommended by Mace, though, on the whole, it is simpler in quality.

We may conclude, therefore, that the best history teaching necessitates ready access to a well-chosen library; that a minimum requirement of supplementary reading would necessitate a more accurate selection of books and topics, with a more careful designation of daily readings. Some such systematic classification is almost imperative as a guide to teachers who frequently are burdened with a daily program of almost, if not quite, continuous recitation hours, working also with a meagre library and often with other entirely inadequate equipment. The best results would require more intensive rather than more extensive reading. This would mean a limited assignment of outside reading, in which the teacher has stimulated the interest of the class during recitation and given definite directions for preparation by assigning them problems to solve or points upon which they are to seek information for the class. The readings chosen should not only give the information desired, but should also be suited to the age, progress and interests of the children. Reference work

<sup>15</sup> McMurray Special Method, 186-188.

<sup>16</sup> Manual, 299-300.

<sup>17</sup> Appendix, 33-36.

planned along these lines and limited to a twenty-minute minimum would check purposeless rambling in historical fields, would train the pupil how to read history, would do much to awaken a reading interest in the history of his country, which would remain actively with him as a citizen in the business world. As they stand now, the usual requirements seem to encourage much reading rather than careful reading. The lines of collateral reading which are most beneficial to the student, however, are growing more distinct as teachers of history turn their attention to the problem, and the evidence indicates that the day approaches when we may know just what reading to require in order to secure the highest pedagogical results.

## Berkeley Public Schools—Courses in History

ARRANGED BY WILLIAM JOHN COOPER.

School administrators throughout the country have been interested in the six and six plan of grades adopted in the public elementary and high schools of Berkeley, Cal. This plan is coming to be advocated in other parts of the country, and has been adopted in certain places. The teacher of history is interested in learning how the history course can be arranged to fit into such a schedule. Through the kindness of Mr. William John Cooper, who has been largely instrumental in organizing this work, we have the opportunity of publishing a summary of the course in history in the Berkeley system.—EDITOR.

### PRELIMINARY.

The courses are based upon the following premises:

1. Each course should consider the pupil as an element in society. Whether the subject-matter tends to make for civic righteousness and for the development of the pupil in his responsibilities to society should be the test applied in each course (i. e., Elementary, Intermediate, High).

2. The work in each course, and, in fact, in each year, should not primarily lead to what follows, but should be so arranged that if the pupil leaves school at the end of any year, the history teacher could honestly feel that this pupil had been given the most vital information that it is within his experience and intellectual power to take.

### THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE.

The Elementary Course is called "Citizenship," and combines elements commonly treated under the heads of Civics, Ethics and History. Such principles from the fields of Civics and Ethics as would tend to make the pupil a normal element in social life are foremost. History, and even other lines of information, are drawn on to inculcate these principles, more and more historical fact being introduced as the pupil matures and his experience widens, but no chronological survey of history is attempted in any grade.

The general subject of each grade is as follows:

Grade I—The Home and Family..

Grade II—The School and Playground.

Grade III—The Neighborhood.

Grade IV—The City, County and State.

Grade V—The Nation.

Grade VI—The Early Peoples who Helped Develop Civilization.

It will be observed that the scope of work widens from year to year, both geographically and chronologically.

In the first three grades, the oral story is the method of instruction. While the general subjects are much the same for these three grades, new material is added each year—the spiral rather than the circle representing the

work. For example, the first topic for Grades 1, 2 and 3 is the Indian. In Grade 1, the Indian child in his family is the theme; in Grade 2, he is seen at play, his sports, and his early training by father and mother are treated; in Grade 3, his occupations—his place in his tribe, etc., are discussed.

The second topic takes up matters connected with Thanksgiving and Christmas. More and more historical fact about the beginning of, and reasons for, these celebrations is introduced as the child advances.

Topic 3. Lincoln and Washington. The story is developed from grade to grade. In the first grade, the childhood and early life of Washington and Lincoln are discussed; second grade, boyhood and education; third grade, community life and early occupations.

Topic 4 concerns itself with animals, birds and plants. This topic is taken up in the spring of the year when nature is alive, and aims to cultivate a proper treatment and appreciation of animals and plants. It likewise works out from the home by a discussion of different animals and different plants each year, but in each case emphasizing the same general principles.

Topic 5 concerns itself largely with Mother's Day and Flag Day. In the third grade, however, the topic is "The Widening Neighborhood," and the stories of the steamboat, railroad, telegraph, Atlantic cable and telephone are told. Flag Day this year notes the effect of these inventions in making possible the 48 stars.

The second division, Grades 4, 5, 6. In these grades, the pupil may begin to read some for himself, although the oral method will still be employed. Instruction will tend to group itself around the lives of certain historical personages.

The Fourth Grade opens also with the Indians, but in this case they are the Indians of the West, particularly of California and the Bay Region. The other main topics are: The discoverers of the State—Cabrillo and Drake as types of Spanish and English explorers; the missionaries, especially Father Serra; the early Spaniards and their good points—General Vallejo as a type; the American explorer—Lewis and Clark and Fremont as types; the American pioneer settler—Sutter as a type; the admission of California to the American Union.

Grade 5 follows largely the plan of the Committee of Eight, being our national history from the biographical point of view. The course is outlined around five chief headings, as follows:

1. GREAT EXPLORERS WHO MADE IT POSSIBLE FOR EUROPEANS TO KNOW THE NEW WORLD.—Columbus and Magellan as types. Also typical explorers who established European claims—Cabots and Drake (in review) for England; De Soto for Spain; LaSalle for France; Hudson for Holland.

2. GREAT PIONEERS WHO MADE POSSIBLE THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE NEW WORLD.—Standish and John Smith (in review), with the reasons for the establishment of these two first settlements. Williams, as a type of fair dealing with the Indians; Penn as a type of fair dealing with all people; Oglethorpe as a type of benefactor of the unfortunate.

3. MEN WHO MADE POSSIBLE OUR NATIONAL EXISTENCE.—Henry, Samuel Adams, and Franklin as exponents of union and resistance; Washington; and selected stories about such assistants of Washington in the Revolutionary War as time permits.

4. DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATION.—Jefferson, Jackson, Clay, Calhoun and Webster; Houston and companions.

5. THE CIVIL WAR.—Lincoln, Grant and Lee.

Grade 6. The Nations of the East; the buildings and beginnings of writing by Egyptians; the development of writing and trade by the Phenicians; the teaching of the one-God idea by the Hebrews.

Greece and Her Contributions.

Rome and Her Contributions.

The Germanic Tribes; their early lives and habits as a picture of our early forefathers in their primitive ways, indicating what there was to be learned between their day and ours.

### THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL COURSE: History and Geography.

The following extracts are quoted from the course of study:

The three years' course in the intermediate school cannot hope to attain all the ends of history instruction, yet there are certain very definite things that a pupil ought to get from history during this period.

First. A fair understanding of the development of the civilization in which he lives, a realization of the cost of our present civil liberty, and of the fact that our forefathers were making our history before the new world was discovered.

Second. A minimum of the facts of United States history, i.e., sufficient to enable him to read articles, speeches, books, etc., that are constantly coming to the attention with some degree of appreciation and understanding.

Third. A considerable knowledge of the history, government, and problems of his immediate environment; and a desire to meet them in a broad-minded way, and cheerfully contribute what he can to the solution of difficult problems.

With these ends in view, the following courses are offered:

#### SEVENTH YEAR—THE EUROPEAN BASIS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

The facts will be in large part from the history of England, "The Mother Country," but it will be necessary to revert to the Roman Empire, its influence on the barbarian invaders, conditions of the people, the feudal nobility, the church, the serfs, the Crusaders, commercial awakening, and the cutting off of the Eastern trade routes and the exploration that followed. The colonial period of American history will be treated as a part of the struggle for civil liberty (religious and political) going on in the Old World.

SCOPE.—The work will cover about thirteen centuries. Emphasis is on the place element. Dates which serve as landmarks will be learned, but the age of the pupil makes necessary minimum attention to time element, and little can be done with causal relations. Much attention is given to map work, the use of gazetteer, atlas, and wall map. A notebook is kept by pupil and careful correction made of the English (emphasis on use of quotation marks and development of ideals on use made of other's work).

Low Seventh Semester: Europe from the fourth century to about 1453.

High Seventh Semester: Europe from 1453 to 1763 and the colonization of the New World. (Emphasis on England and the English colonies.)

#### EIGHTH YEAR—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CITIZENSHIP.

Only facts that seem most essential for the future citizen in the discharge of his civic duties should be taught.

SCOPE.—From 1763 to present time. Much emphasis on place element and much more attention to time element than in seventh year work. Use span of the pupils' memory as a unit of measuring time.

Low Eighth—The United States, 1763 to about 1870. (End of Reconstruction—Political.)

#### HIGH EIGHTH—RECENT UNITED STATES HISTORY AND CIVICS.

1. Industrial development.
2. Economic nature of our problems—need of new party alignment.
3. Development of a clean civic spirit—a social hygiene to keep in healthy condition the "body politic"—the spirit rather than the form or machinery of our government.

#### NINTH YEAR—HISTORY AND PROBLEMS OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

As the pupil now has a basis on which to consider our pressing problems, has two years' training in the study of history in an elementary way, has learned the use of those books which are essential tools of history study, and has considerable degree of maturity, he can be given some work in the causal relations of history. The first emphasis, how-

ever, is still on the place element. In absence of a textbook, the notebook and outside reading become very important.

#### LOW NINTH SEMESTER—HISTORY OF THE PACIFIC.

##### Discovery and Exploration.

1. Spanish review conditions in Europe (see seventh work). Follow line of Spanish colonization (much as was done with the English in eighth year), proceeding from known world in 1490 with a series of maps to show revealing of South America, what is now Central America, and the Pacific Coast of North America.

2. Spanish occupation, especially of California. The mission system.

3. The exploration and settlement of the Pacific Northwest, with emphasis on the American pioneer.

4. Summary of history of Spanish in the New World, the secession of the Spanish colonies and the attitude of the United States (Monroe Doctrine).

5. Meeting of Spanish and Anglo-Saxon civilizations—Mexican War. California, a State in the American Union.

#### HIGH NINTH SEMESTER—CALIFORNIA, HER GOVERNMENT AND OTHER PROBLEMS.

1. California as a State. Recent history and her government. (State Constitution and California Blue Book.)

2. Local government. The county and city. (Detailed study of the city charter.)

3. The function of municipal government. Streets, public works, municipal ownership, etc.

4. Our relations with Latin America. The Panama Canal. Commercial relations with these countries.

5. Our relations with the Orient. Problems of trade and immigration. Our policy toward China. (The Hay Doctrine.)

The course is given from a syllabus prepared by the History Department.

The geography of a region under discussion is taught in connection with the history.

#### THE HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.

The following are extracts from the Course of Study:

The course in history in the high school is designed primarily for those students who will not go to college, and for prospective college students who expect to major in lines other than history. All prospective engineering students who can take a subject in addition to those prerequisite to their college work should add history, as they will have little or no opportunity to get history in college.

HISTORY OF WESTERN EUROPE.—(Two years' course; 2 credits.)

By terms, the work is divided as follows:

Low 10 HISTORY.—Western Europe, Ancient Period (to c. 800 A. D.).

This course is planned to give a general idea of the early Eastern countries and their contributions to the civilization of the West; that portion of Grecian history which is significant in the development of her art, literature and science; the history of Rome from 200 B. C. to the fall of the Empire; the rise and development of the Frankish kingdom through the reign of Charlemagne; and the results of the Anglo-Saxon occupation of England.

High 10 HISTORY.—Western Europe, Medieval Period (to c. 1500 A. D.).

This course emphasizes especially the following:

1. Period 814 to 1100. The unsettled condition of Europe following the dissolution of Charlemagne's empire; the rise and development of feudalism; the activity of the Northmen; the rise of native dynasties; the restoration of the empire; the medieval church, its position and influence, and its relation to the empire.

2. The period of general awakening from 1100 to 1500. Commercial development resulting from the Crusades; the gradual political awakening with the growth of the cities, and the intellectual awakening reaching its climax in the Italian Renaissance.

Low 11 HISTORY.—Western Europe, Early Modern Period.



This course considers the history of Western Europe from the Renaissance through the downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte, and concerns itself with the struggle for religious and political freedom.

1. The religious wars.
2. The development of royal power in the more important States.
3. A rising consciousness of the rights of the people and the political upheaval centering about the French Revolution and the work of Napoleon.

HIGH 11 HISTORY.—Western Europe, Nineteenth Century. The rise of democracy is the general theme of this course. Considerable attention will be given to:

1. Territorial expansion and the building of modern empires.
2. Commercial expansion; the great inventions and industrial development of the century.
3. Political and social conditions at the opening of the twentieth century, with a survey of present conditions in Europe, and the effort to replace war by arbitration.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.—(One year; 1 credit.)

It is required for graduation from the high school. The subject matter is adapted primarily to meet the needs of the citizen and voter, but the methods of teaching employed are primarily to train students for work in the university.

LOW 12 HISTORY.—The United States through the Civil War.

HIGH 12 HISTORY.—Government in the United States.

Forman's "Advanced Civics" represents the text-book work which constitutes about one-half of this course; the rest of the work being presented by means of constitutions, charters, other documents, and lectures. The recent history of the United States is worked in to illustrate the political development.

THEME. A theme of about 3,000 words on some topic of present-day interest is required of each pupil. The preparation is under the immediate supervision of the teacher, and involves a knowledge of the use of the index of the public library, Pool's Index, and the selection of what is essential from a mass of information on the subject.

NOTE TAKING. As about 30 per cent. of the course is lecture and recitation, it is expected that the student learn to take notes.

TESTS. There are frequent written tests on both notes and text. The work as a whole is examined and reported upon in six blocks.

Colleges are requested to train leaders and assist in the Americanization movement. The plan of this campaign is to take a step toward national preparedness by encouraging foreigners within the limits of the United States to learn English and identify themselves more closely with the things of American communities. College graduates are requested in order to help in presenting to the new citizens American ideals of politics, finance, and social service. College students are needed at once for this work. Further information can be obtained from the National American Committee, 20 West Thirty-fourth Street, New York City.

"The Northern Confederacy According to the Members of the Essex Gunto, 1796-1814" is the title of a doctrinal thesis presented by Charles R. Brown to the faculty of Princeton University. The thesis is based upon printed works, including the Pickering Manuscripts, files of New England magazines, and contemporary pamphlets.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

MACE, WILLIAM H. *Method in History*. New York: Rand, McNally & Co., 1914. Pp. 311. \$1.00.

This work, first published nearly twenty years ago, now appears in a new edition. Those teachers to whom it is not familiar will find in it an excellent discussion of purposes and methods in teaching history. Little attention is given to devices, or methods in the narrower sense. Rather, fundamental principles are stated from the standpoint of psychology. Emphasis is placed upon "content;" attention is called to "continuity" and "differentiation" in the relations existing among facts. The supreme effort of historical study should be directed towards "interpretation."

The organization of history is illustrated with reference to the periods of American history, and nearly one-half of the book is given to summaries of these periods, as seen through the author's interpretative medium.

The new edition makes changes chiefly in the last quarter of the book, treating of elementary phases of history teaching. Here, instead of "sense phase," the term "observation work" sometimes appears; for "representative history" we find "picture-making." There is a new account of the teacher as story-teller. Some fifteen pages are occupied by a series of "word pictures" taken from Mace's School History.

The final pages contain a discussion of history in high schools, in which the reports of various committees are analyzed. The author inclines strongly towards the adoption of the recommendations made by the committee of the New England Association upon social studies.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

UPDYKE, F. A. *The Diplomacy of the War of 1812*. Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, 1914. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1915. Pp. x, 494. \$2.50.

This volume consists of eleven topical chapters. It treats of causes of war running back to 1785, and of the execution of the treaty of Ghent down to 1912. It is amply documented, and use has been made of new material, particularly of the papers of Jonathan Russell. It does not, however, appear that Mr. Russell was more important as a news gatherer than as a diplomat, and the new material adds little to the knowledge of the specialist. The topical treatment destroys the coherence of chronology, and the author reduces the personal element to a negligible minimum. Clay is mentioned first on his appointment as commissioner, and without reference to his past in bringing on the war. The color of personal relationships at Ghent, which played such an important part in the negotiations, is baldly rendered. The popular atmosphere which was probably the determining factor in bringing the United States into the war, is ignored, and in its place is a discussion of the authorship of the House report recommending war. The atmosphere of London at the time of the negotiations is almost as scantily given. The clash of national interests in the West is nowhere explained. The chapter on "The Indian Question and the Canadian Boundary" opens as if the question of an Indian buffer state was a new proposition in 1814. The provision of the Jay treaty with regard to the fur trade is not mentioned.

and consequently Clay's stand with regard to the navigation of the Mississippi is left as usual as an instance of inexplicable obstinacy.

It is obvious that this is not a treatment of diplomacy, but a study in the discussion and development of international law. It seems strange that this being the main burden of the book, the opportunity is neglected of treating the very interesting question of the effect of war on the duration of treaties, which occupied so much of the attention of the two governments between 1815 and 1818.

The book does not present important new facts or ideas, it does not tell the whole story, and it is not concise. It is a safe compendium of the conventional topics suggested by the War of 1812, and such a review has a special value at this time, owing to some basic similarities in the international problems of the United States then and now.

University of Wisconsin.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

WEST, WILLIS MASON. *The Modern World*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1915. Pp. xvii, 747. \$1.50.

The author informs us that this book was planned as a revision of his *Modern History*, "but it has grown into a distinct work, and it has seemed best to give it a name of its own." His claims for consideration rest on three points—first, the prominence given to English history; second, the emphasis placed upon the social and industrial development, and third, the full treatment of the last century.

The first eighty pages "summarize human progress down to Charlemagne's day;" the next 245 reach the Reformation; the following 100 take us to the French Revolution, which is covered in some eighty pages. This leaves one-third of the book for the century following the downfall of Napoleon. The present reviewer has little criticism on the allotments of space. It will be seen that the author has followed the prevalent tendency to emphasize the achievements of the last century.

Since many high schools find it difficult to offer a separate course in English history, Professor West's rather generous treatment of the history of England will be appreciated by many teachers. The three chapters on the English industrial revolution add to the value of the treatise.

Regardless of the author's statement that this book is a "distinct work," it bears a close resemblance to its predecessor. This resemblance is found not only in content, but also in the mechanical and pedagogical features of the work. The "Modern World" contains the same generous use of bold-faced type, italics and agate type which characterize all of Professor West's books. The reviewer is aware of the pedagogical value of such devices, but believes that their too frequent use gives a "choppy" appearance, and is a hindrance rather than a help.

The text contains 192 illustrations presenting a great variety of material. Opinions will vary as to the wisdom of using so much space for pictures of several men of each of several generations. There are 53 maps, 38 of which are colored and are well executed. The book is singularly free from errors and has a good index, where the more difficult words are marked diacritically.

Space forbids a discussion of the relative merits of the chapters, but in passing, the reviewer desires to point out that the difficult period from 1789 to 1815 is well done, and with the capacity and needs of the second or third year high school student in view.

D. C. SCHILLING.

Monmouth College.

BECKER, CARL L. *Beginnings of the American People*. Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. xii, 279. \$1.75.

JOHNSON, ALLEN. *Union and Democracy*. Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. x, 346. \$1.75. Volumes I and II, *Riverside History of the United States*, 4 vols. W. E. Dodd, editor.

These little volumes form the first half of a co-operative history of the United States. Continuity and unity of treatment, little apt to prevail in a work by several hands, have in this case been attained by a good editorship or by good fortune. Expert knowledge in a limited field tends to produce history stamped with thoroughness and authority, and the authors of this series are qualified for their allotted tasks. The volumes are well written; in fact, the excellence of literary quality is one of the commendable features of the series. In particular, Professor Becker's book is a fine piece of writing. The abundance and variety of good maps and charts also constitute one of the strong points of the work. In this respect Professor Becker, with five maps, falls far behind Professor Johnson, with thirty, eight of which are of double-page size. It is unfortunate that some of them inserted in the body of the text are so small as to impair their usefulness.

The first volume represents the newer tendencies in the treatment of the colonial era. Once writers commonly viewed the colonies as isolated communities, and emphasized the minutiae of local development. Now the style is to interweave the various forces, local, imperial and European, to explain the evolution of the colonies, thus giving unity, balance and breadth of vision to the history of early America. Professor Becker has comprehended the colonies as parts of a great European movement of expansion, as members of a wide empire and as separate communities with a life and growth peculiarly American. It should be kept in mind, however, that Professor Becker is interested primarily in the interpretation of the origins and early development of the American people, and that external forces and factors are subordinated to this one end.

The period covered by Professor Johnson, from 1783 to 1829, has been so intensively studied and presented from every angle that there was not the opportunity to assume new points of view as in the case of the colonial period. But the author gives a fresh touch to a familiar period, and weaves together with good judgment and a nice sense of proportion the forces making for stronger union against particularism and sectionalism, the movement of expansion westward with its democratizing influences on society and politics, and the persistent connection of the New World with the Old, bringing with it the perplexing problems of war and diplomacy.

In the matter of apportionment of space, the series follows the usual practice of devoting to the national period, a century and a third in length, thrice as many pages as allotted to the colonial era of more than two centuries in length. It is not contended that space should be apportioned according to the number of years covered; for that would leave out of the reckoning the important element of social values. It is understood that the colonies are not to be treated for their own sake in what is intended to be primarily a history of the United States. The task of writing a history of the colonies for their own sake still remains to be done. Professor Becker's volume does not fill this great need. But even as a period when the foundations of American nationality were laid, even as an introduction to the history of the national era, the colonies deserve more attention than is their lot.

These volumes offer the best broad account of our history for the general public of readers. Detached volumes on short periods conform to class needs where the courses

in history have assumed a specialized character. For the latter purpose, however, the separate volumes may be considered by some as too brief in their treatment of the particular period.

W. T. ROOT.

University of Wisconsin.

Griffin, Grace Gardner. *Writings on American History*, 1913. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1915. Pp. xvii, 193. \$2.00, net.

The thanks of all scholars of American history are due to those co-operating in making possible the publication of this annual bibliography—to Miss Griffin, to the contributors toward the guarantee fund, to Dr. J. F. Jameson, and to the authorities of the Yale University Press. The present volume lists 3,013 books and important magazine articles upon American history published in the year 1913, as compared with 3,392 listed in the volume for 1912. The list for 1913 is shorter than that for any year since 1908. Whether this is due to a reduced output of works on American history, or to a slight variation in indexing, is not apparent. Only two topics, "United States from 1789-1829" and "British America," show any decided increase over 1912. Indeed, it is interesting to note that the relative proportion of works under each heading varies but slightly between the two years. Works on social, economic, religious and educational history show a heavy decrease, while biography gains a slight advance.

Stowell, Ellery C. *The Diplomacy of the War of 1914. The Beginnings of the War*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. Pp. xvii, 728. \$5.00, net.

This book presents the causes of the great European war as brought out in the official accounts of negotiations published by the various belligerent governments, supplemented by references to statements by prominent officials and journalists. The documents themselves are readily available, and so technical that it takes an experienced diplomatist a long time "to get at the gist of the material." Hence, this work by such a thorough scholar as Professor Stowell has already received a warm welcome. First, the author gives a brief resumé of the salient facts of European diplomatic history in the past forty-five years or more so far as they obviously bear on recent events. This fills only thirty-seven pages, and is followed by a detailed analysis of the official documents (covering 478 pages) so as to make a connected account of events. In chapter eleven he gathers together the various threads and draws conclusions. At the beginning of Part III, Professor Stowell gives twenty-two questions with answers, and nine questions without answers. In these he condenses his conclusions in a masterly manner. These are followed by an excellent series of documents, illustrating the political aims of the powers, the alliances, Anglo-German relations, the Austro-Servian dispute, Belgian neutrality, and the methods of carrying on the war. These are from such various sources as official statements, speeches, treaties, newspaper reports of negotiations, and extracts from illuminating books and magazine articles. The appendix contains an excellent detailed chronological summary, a list of citations from the various official documents, and a good index.

The work has been done carefully by a specialist in international law, but one is likely at once to ask, Is he a propagandist for Germany or the Allies? The reviewer finds the book very impartial. Professor Stowell assigns the blame wherever he believes it due, and gives full arguments and evidence to back his opinions. In view of the American tendency to favor the Allies, he takes especial pains to make clear Germany's position. Nevertheless, he

concludes that, while Germany and Austria are by no means wholly to blame, they must bear a heavier responsibility for the outbreak of war in August, 1914, than any other one or two states. Professor Stowell intends to follow the diplomacy of the war in succeeding volumes. The quality of this first volume is so high and it is so opportune that it should have wide circulation. For high school pupils it is very detailed, but it may well be used for special reports and investigation by the more mature. It will be found an extremely valuable reference book for colleges and universities.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

Bryant, E. E. *A Short History of Rome*. Cambridge: University Press, 1914. Pp. 262. 5s.

This is designed as a text-book "primarily for the use of middle and upper forms in the public schools" of England, and carries the subject through the reign of Augustus. Its main emphasis is on Rome's political development, the everyday life of the Roman being but indirectly depicted. Some serviceable maps and battle plans, and a dozen or more illustrations are provided.

Tomlinson, Everett E. *Places Young Americans Want to Know*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1915. Pp. 282. \$1.50.

This is more geographical than historical, for of its twenty-seven chapters, ten only treat of places intimately associated with our nation's history. Plymouth, Washington and Mt. Vernon, St. Augustine, Jamestown, Philadelphia, Concord and Lexington, Bunker Hill, Trenton and Princeton, Harvard, West Point and Annapolis are described with reference to both present importance and past significance. Then the young traveler is taken to the Yellowstone, Yosemite and other regions of similar scenic importance. Forty or more pictures, many of them excellent, supplement the text.

In "The Virginia Magazine of History and Biography" for October, 1915, is the third installment of "The Virginia Frontier in History, 1778," by David I. Bushnell, Jr., on the enemies and defenders of the frontier to the treaty of July 23, 1778, the first treaty of the United States with an Indian nation, the purpose of which was to gain peace for the Virginia frontier, then extending to the Mississippi River.

The purpose of Miss Bertha H. Putnam's "Maximum Wage Laws for Priests After the Black Death, 1348-1381," in the "American Historical Review" for October, is to investigate within the separate dioceses as units, the actual workings of the administrative machinery of the Church as applied to the economic crisis of 1348-81. She deals with secular legislation, ecclesiastical measures and the conflict of jurisdiction between secular courts and courts Christian.

One of the most stirring of war diaries is Ellen N. La Motte's "Under Shell Fire at Dunkirk," which appears in the November "Atlantic."

The New York Bureau of Municipal Research publishes a monthly periodical containing the results of the studies of the Bureau. Recent important numbers are "The Constitution and Government of the State of New York," issued in May, 1915; "Budget Systems," issued in June, 1915; "State Administrations," issued in July, 1915.



## Reports from The Historical Field

### NOTES.

Arguments in favor of a National Protective Tariff Policy can be obtained, free of charge, from the American Protective Tariff League, 339 Broadway, New York City.

The influence of the war upon the course of study and its modification of the content of the subject matter in the elementary schools of France is discussed in "Révue Pédagogique," for June, 1915.

The United States Bureau of Education and the National Americanization Committee have issued a colored poster inviting new citizens to learn the English language, attend night school, take out citizens' papers, and thereby improve their opportunities for advancement. The poster is printed in seven languages.

The American School Peace League will conduct during the present school year a prize contest opened to pupils of all countries for two sets of prizes known as the Seabury Prizes. For seniors in normal schools, the topic assigned for this year is "The Opportunity and Duty of the Schools in the International Peace Movement;" for seniors in secondary schools the topic is "The Influence of the United States in Advancing the Cause of International Peace." In each group there are three prizes of, respectively, seventy-five, fifty and twenty-five dollars. Further information concerning the contest can be obtained from Miss Fannie Fern Andrews, secretary, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston, Mass.

### IOWA ASSOCIATION.

The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers met on November 4 and 5, and the program, as announced in the November number of the MAGAZINE, was carried out with certain modifications. The following officers were elected: President, L. B. Schmidt, of Iowa State College, Ames; vice-president, Miss Ruth Fall, of Cedar Falls; secretary and treasurer, Miss Mary Kasson, of East High School, Des Moines; chairman of Executive Committee, A. B. Clark, Drake University, Des Moines.

### MINNESOTA HISTORY BULLETIN.

Bulletins for the guidance of teachers of history have been issued by a number of educational institutions, particularly in the Middle West. The most important are those issued by the University of Texas and by the State Normal School at Kirksville, Mo. To these we are glad to welcome a new contribution which appears in the University of Minnesota Current Problems Publications, No. 7, and is entitled, "Bulletin for Teachers of History." The editor is Prof. A. C. Krey, of the University. The pamphlet contains advice concerning the preparation of the history teacher; materials for the conduct of history class work, including text-books, maps and works of reference; and devices for the teaching of history, such as the outline, the source method, outline maps, illustrative material, historical fiction and notebooks. Much practical information is given under each one of these headings. The pamphlet closes with some suggestions for the improvement of history teaching in Minnesota. The author states that within the next few years the history teachers of the country must satisfactorily answer the following questions:

1. The relation of the various social sciences in the high school curriculum.
2. The relation of American history and government.

3. Shall modern history (since 1500 or 1648) receive a semester or a year?

4. Where shall English history be taught? In what year? Alone, or in connection with continental history?

5. If modern history is allotted a year, what shall be done with ancient and medieval history? Shall they be telescoped into a one-year course or allowed a year and a half as at present?

6. What kind of history shall be taught in connection with vocational subjects?

### VIRGINIA HISTORY TEACHERS.

The History Teachers' Section of the Virginia State Teachers' Association met at Richmond, Va., on Thursday, November 25. The following program was carried out: I. Requirements for the Certification of High School Teachers of History in Virginia and Other States; (1) Report by committee: Miss Zaidie Smith, chairman, Portsmouth, Va.; Miss Sallie G. Robertson, Petersburg, Va., and Miss Katherine Wicker, Norfolk, Va.; (2) General discussion. II. Is Too Much Emphasis Being Placed on Ancient and Medieval History in Virginia High Schools, to the Neglect of Modern History? (1) Report by committee: Mrs. E. M. Baker, chairman, Norfolk, Va.; Miss Fronde Kennedy, Farmville, Va., and Miss Martha Davis, Harrisonburg, Va.; (2) General discussion. III. The Publication of a Virginia History Syllabus for Use in Secondary Schools and Colleges; (1) Report by committee: Prof. D. R. Anderson, chairman, Richmond, Va.; (2) General discussion. IV. Some Notable Contributions to Historical Literature Published Recently by Virginians, Mr. E. G. Swem, Virginia State Library. The president of the section is Prof. John W. Wayland, of Harrisonburg, Va., and the secretary is Miss Katherine Wicker, of Norfolk, Va.

### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM SEPTEMBER 25 TO OCTOBER 30, 1915.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

#### American History.

- Bledsoe, Albert T. The war between the states. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. 242 pp. 65 cents.
- Bridgman, Edward P., and Parsons, Lake F. With John Brown in Kansas: the battle of Ossawatimie. Madison, Wis.: J. N. Davidson. 36 pp. 50 cents.
- Cockrum, William M. History of the underground railroad. Oakland City, Ind.: J. W. Cockrum Print. 328 pp. \$1.25.
- Dyer, Walter A. Early American craftsmen. N. Y.: Century Co. 387 pp. \$2.40, net.
- Eldredge, Zoeth S., editor. History of California. In 5 vols. N. Y.: Century Hist. Co., 54 Dey St. 2740 pp. \$30.00.
- Engelhardt, Charles A. The missions and missionaries of California. Vol. 4, Upper California; pt. 3, general history. San Francisco: J. H. Barry Co. 817 pp. (3 pp. bibl.). \$3.00, net.
- Fish, Carl Russell. American diplomacy. N. Y.: Holt. 541 pp. \$2.75, net.
- Muzzey, David S. Readings in American History. Boston: Ginn. 594 pp. \$1.50.
- Nicholson, Joseph S. The neutrality of the United States in relation to the British and the German empires. N. Y.: Macmillan. 92 pp. 20 cents, net.
- Official correspondence between the United States and Germany [etc.]. N. Y.: Am. Assn. for Internat. Conciliation. 59 pp. Gratis.
- Parker, Edward E. History of Brookline [New Hampshire]. Brookline, N. H.: Hist. Committee. 664 pp. \$3.00.
- Peck, Chauncey E. The history of Wilbraham, Mass. Wilbraham, Mass.: The Town. 469 pp. \$2.00.

- Plehn, Carl C. Government finance in the United States. Chicago: McClurg. 166 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Sherrill, Charles H. French memories of eighteenth century America. N. Y.: Scribner. 335 pp. (7 pp. bibl.). \$2.00, net.
- Showerman, Grant. The Indian Stream Republic and Luther Parker. Concord, N. H.: N. H. Hist. Soc. 272 pp. \$3.00.
- Tilghman, Oswald, compiler. History of Talbot county, Md., 1661-1861. In 2 vols. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins. 1222 pp. \$10.00.

## Ancient History.

- Hutton, Edward. Attila and the Huns. N. Y.: Dutton. 228 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Kuhn, Albert, D.D. Roma; ancient, subterranean, modern. Part XI. N. Y.: Benziger. 35 cents.
- Tacitus, Caius C. The histories of Tacitus, an English translation with introduction notes [etc.]. N. Y.: Dutton. 463 pp. \$5.00, net.
- Van Hoonacker, A. Une communauté Judéo-Araméenne à Eléphantine en Egypte au VI<sup>e</sup> et Ve siècles av. J. C. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 91 pp. \$1.00, net.

## English History.

- Foster, William, editor. The English factories in India, 1651-1654, a calendar of documents in the India office, Westminster. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 324 pp. \$4.15, net.
- Gras, Norman S. B. The evolution of the English corn market from the twelfth to the eighteenth century. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 498 pp. (13 pp. bibl.). \$2.50, net.
- Murray, George G. A. The foreign policy of Sir Edward Grey, 1906-1915. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 127 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Ramsay, Sir James H. Bamfif charters, A. D. 1232-1703. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 392 pp. \$5.00, net.
- Weigall, Arthur E. P. B. A history of events in Egypt from 1789 to 1914. N. Y.: Scribner. 312 pp. \$3.00, net.
- White, Albert B., and Notestein, W., compilers and editors. Source problems in English history. N. Y.: Harper. 421 pp. \$1.30, net.

## European History.

- Adams, George. Behind the scenes at the front. N. Y.: Duffield. 239 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Aston, Florence. Stories from German history from ancient times to the year 1648. N. Y.: Crowell. 276 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Belloc, Hilaire. High lights of the French Revolution. N. Y.: Century Co. 301 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Bland, J. O. P. Germany's violations of the laws of war, 1914-1915. Compiled under the direction of the French ministry of Foreign Affairs. N. Y.: Putnam. 346 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Cazalet, Lucy. A short history of Russia. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 88 pp. 60 cents, net.
- Church, Samuel H. The American verdict on the war. Balto.: Norman, Remington. 92 pp. 15 cents.
- Eversley, George J. S., Baron. The partitions of Poland. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 328 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Ferrero, Guglielmo. Who wanted the European war? N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 39 pp. 25 cents, net.
- Fuehr, Alexander. The neutrality of Belgium. N. Y.: Funk and Wagnalls. 248 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Gibbons, Herbert A. Paris reborn. [Diary written during first five months of the war.] N. Y.: Century Co. 395 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Gjeraset, Knut. History of the Norwegian people. In 2 vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 507, 626 pp. \$8.00, net.
- Hall, Ronald A. Frederick the Great and his seven Years' War. N. Y.: Dutton. 240 pp. \$1.50, net.

- Haskins, Charles H. The Normans in European history. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 258 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Hirst, Francis W. The political economy of the war. N. Y.: Dutton. 327 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Italy's green book. Tr. approved by Italian embassy, Washington. N. Y.: Am. Asso. for Internat. Conciliation. 94 pp. Gratis.
- Newbigin, Marion I. Geographical aspects of Balkan problems. N. Y.: Putnam. 238 pp. \$1.75.
- Tönnies, Ferdinand. Warlike England. N. Y.: Dillingham. 202 pp. \$1.00, net.

## Miscellaneous.

- Eberlein, Harold D. The architecture of colonial America. Boston: Little Brown. 289 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Chart of general history, ancient and modern. N. Y.: Longmans. 30 cents.
- Griffin, Grace G., compiler. Writings on American history, 1915. New Haven: Yale Univ. 193 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Laut, Agnes C. The Canadian commonwealth. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 343 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Myres, John L. The provision for historical studies at Oxford. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 27 pp. 35 cents, net.
- Patterson, Samuel W. The spirit of the American Revolution as revealed in the poetry of the period [1760-1783]. Boston: Badger. 235 pp. (7½ pp. bibl.). \$1.50, net.
- Philadelphia, Independence Hall. Catalogue of the portraits and other works of art, Independence Hall, Phila. Phila.: G. H. Buchanan Co. 187 pp. 25 cents, net.

## Biography.

- Stapley, Mildred. Christopher Columbus. N. Y.: Macmillan. 240 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Sprague, William C. Davy Crockett. N. Y.: Macmillan. 240 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Dudley, E. Lawrence. Benjamin Franklin. N. Y.: Macmillan. 232 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Thayer, William R. The life and letters of John Hay. In 2 vols. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 456, 448 pp. \$5.00, net.
- Doster, William E. Lincoln and episodes of the Civil War. N. Y.: Putnam. 282 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Morgan, James. In the footsteps of Napoleon. N. Y.: Macmillan. 524 pp. \$2.50, net.
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